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NEW YORK, THURSDAY, JULY 5, 1900.

The Week.

The preliminary developments at Kansas City do but emphasize two elements in the Democratic situation which were clear enough before—that Bryan has a hold upon the organization which is more powerful than any other leader has wielded in many years, and that the party has been left almost entirely without conservative influences. In 1896 there were men of great prominence and weight in various States who were ready to fight the free-coinage heresy with the utmost vigor. Now there are delegates to the Convention who think that it would be "good politics" to keep silver in the background in order to attract votes, but not one who opposes the policy as a matter of principle. Indeed, there has never been a national gathering of either of the two great parties which contained so few of the leaders who had won its great victories in the past by commending it to the sober judgment of the country. There are whole delegations which contain nobody who was prominent or influential before the upheaval of 1896. The considerations which ordinarily affect the action of national conventions, where radicalism encounters stout opposition from conservative influences, do not apply at Kansas City this week.

The etiquette of the Platt-Roosevelt breakfasts is again thrown into doubt and confusion. The boss has smilingly declined the Governor's invitation to resume the series of political love-feasts. He says: "I do not know of any important matter that should be discussed." But Col. Roosevelt is fairly bursting with important matters. He wants to know about his successor in the Governorship. He desires first-hand information respecting Platt's alleged scheme to so hedge about Gen. Greene with a hostile Executive Committee and other machine obstacles that he cannot take the Presidency of the County Committee, or, if he does, will be impotent. What so consonant with the frank, breezy manners of the gallant Colonel as to whisper with Platt again over the coffee-cups concerning all these affairs, and then come out pledged to secrecy? But the boss will no more of these breakfasts. They have ruined his political digestion. He has probably heard, too, of Roosevelt's boasting among his friends how he had been very firm and very fierce with the boss in these breakfast-table encounters, and had "used" him as an instrument for good government. Platt is now willing to let everybody see who was really being used. Having no further use himself for the Governor, the boss sends him word in true Shylock fashion, "I will not eat with you, drink with you, nor pray with you."

The unprecedented shuffling and recrimination about the Republican platform have had one laughable result; the party organs have been caught napping. The *Tribune*, for example, had on the Thursday following the Convention one of those noble panegyrics on the Philadelphia platform which the party hack knows so well how to write—though how he can do it without grinning we never could imagine. The platform was "straightforward," and set forth the "opinions" of the party on "all issues of broad national concern without timidity, but also without exaggeration," etc. We all know this kind of article; any man could write it in his sleep; it really might as well be kept stereotyped for service in successive years. As for the Philippine plank, the *Tribune* thought on June 21 that the platform had "wisely refrained from committing the party." But lo, the change after Grosvenor's revelation! Why, said the indignant *Tribune*, on June 24, "the platform, to everybody's astonishment, contains no word with reference to one of the most important questions on which the Republican party has been called upon to act." Yes, but how well the *Tribune* had concealed its own astonishment three days before! On Thursday the platform was "straightforward," "wise," everything that was proper and lofty and inspired; on Sunday it was "pettifogging," a failure to "face the issue squarely," and so on. The trials of organic journalism have seldom been more gratuitously exhibited.

Prohibition of the liquor traffic throughout the United States as a Governmental policy is about as absurd as a proposition that poverty should be abolished in all parts of the country by Federal statute, and that it would prove just about as effective is established by the experience of Maine, Kansas, and some other commonwealths which have tried the system. Nevertheless, a number of good people get together once every four years to nominate a candidate for President on this issue, and they succeed in arousing a good deal of enthusiasm in their assembly. The gathering of the party at Chicago last week manifested uncommon bitterness toward the occupant of the White House, and the platform goes to such lengths as to charge Mr. McKinley, Methodist brother of many delegates, with "having, by his conspicuous example as a wine-drinker at public banquets, and as a wine-serving host in the White House, done more to encourage the liquor business, to demoralize the temperance habits of the young men, and to bring Christian practices and requirements into disrepute than any other President this republic has had." There is more warrant for the severe condemnation of the Administration's nullification of the Anti-Canteen Law, and of the license which it has granted to liquor-selling in the Philippines. There is undoubtedly a strong feeling outside the ranks of the professional Prohibitionists regarding the attitude of our authorities toward the question. It is not a matter of an official's personal habits which in no way differentiate him from the ordinary practice of a President. The just ground for complaint is that an Executive who exercises all the power of a dictator under martial law, has permitted in Manila a policy which increases drunkenness, insanity, and crime. The indictment which must stand against Mr. McKinley is the one which was formulated by President Schurman of the first Philippine Commission, that under his authority "we introduced and established the saloon there, to corrupt the natives and to exhibit the vices of our race."

Dr. William Everett's Phi Beta Kappa oration at Harvard last week was not only inspiring in its high moral tone, but also unanswerable in its logic. His reasoning is so clear, and his statements so precise, as to make it hopeless to defend the base and selfish conception of patriotism which now passes current. He forces on those who insist that every citizen should stand by the Government of his country when it goes to war, the question, why? If the word "should" is used, does not that import moral obligation, and require us to say that we must give our support because it is right for us to do so? But if this is true, then the citizens of the country against whom we are fighting are also right in supporting their Government. We kill them because it is right, and they kill us for the same reason. Hence, if we succeed, we are overwhelming a righteous cause, and *vice versa*. This grotesque and primitive conception of morality is probably a survival of polytheism. When every nation believed it had its own tutelary divinity, it was, of course, impious for any citizen to recognize the authority of the tutelary deity of a hostile tribe. The false conception of patriotism with which we are encumbered may have been an ancestral virtue, but it is a disgrace to modern intelligence. If there is such a thing as a moral law, it transcends the bounds of countries and the color of human skins. The ab-

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surdity of maintaining that a number of moral standards might exist, led to the establishment of monotheism; but the atavistic conception of patriotism, which demands that the soldiers of two opposing armies should pray to the same God to help them annihilate one another, is enough to bring the very name of religion into contempt.

Peculiar force and timeliness attach to the appeal for "Consular-Service Reform" issued by the American Association of China. It was put forth at Shanghai on April 5, signed by missionaries and business men, and with unconscious prophecy it described the capital importance of having in China, in times of crisis, consuls of the highest character and competence. While not attacking the present force directly, it is easy to read between the lines the mortification which American residents in China feel at our consular representation there. Yet, as the appeal points out, foreigners in China are "especially dependent upon their consular representatives." This is because, under extra-territorial jurisdiction, their lives and property, with their commercial interests and other rights and privileges, are in the consul's hands. It is extremely important, therefore, that consuls should have had some legal training, know something of the rules of evidence, and of the laws which they are to administer. The Association's appeal clearly implies that our actual consuls have not such qualifications. It explicitly asserts that they know nothing of the language, and are in this respect at a "great disadvantage" as compared with British and other consuls. But proficiency in Chinese can be had only after years of study, and, as the American Association of China plaintively declares, "the frequent changes of our consular officers are peculiarly unfortunate." Thus we have the old Philippine lesson taught us over again—that army and navy are not the only means of protecting American interests abroad. A reformed consular service is as much needed as guns and flags; but McKinley has not lifted a finger to secure it, as is evident from his selections for the consulates in China.

Admiral Seymour's dispatch is the first official news we have had from the Chinese interior. While it leaves the central mystery at Pekin darker than ever, it throws a clear light on the extent and nature of the wild insurrection which prevails inland. On June 18, the Admiral says, Imperial troops joined the Boxers in attacking his slender column. This is the first indication that the Chinese Government, as such, had anything to do with the assaults upon the foreign troops, and, of course, it is by no means conclusive, as a section of the Imperial troops may have mutinied and joined the Boxers. These fanatics, with their characteristic contempt of death, appear to have done almost all the fighting, and to have been killed in heaps. Admiral Seymour certainly conducted both his advance and retreat with skill and gallantry. One ominous note in his dispatch is his discovery of immense stores of guns, arms, and ammunition of the latest pattern in the Chinese arsenal, which he seized. This confirms the report that the Chinese had been secretly importing vast quantities of rifles. Here is one sardonic aspect of the great increase in Chinese trade, of which we and other civilized nations have been boasting. The weapons we have sold China she now aims at us.

The strike at Chicago, which has been going on some eight months, has been virtually settled by an agreement between the bricklayers' union and the employers, which includes a further agreement to refer all other similar disputes hereafter to arbitration, with Judge Grosscup as umpire. This is in harmony with the English system of voluntary arbitration described in the last number of the Bulletin of the Bureau of Labor Statistics at Washington. It is not unlikely that this publication was the immediate cause of the settlement at Chicago. At all events, the settlement must be hailed with satisfaction in every industrial centre of the Union, and we feel sure that it will find imitators in many quarters where heretofore strikes and lockouts have caused enormous losses, and yielded nothing to either side that could not have been gained at the beginning as well as at the end of the struggle. It might as well be recognized now as later, that arbitration of some kind will be invoked by the State as a deliverance from intolerable evils like those which at this moment hold St. Louis in subjection. Unless the parties immediately concerned desire voluntary arbitration on the English plan, the community will give them compulsory arbitration on the New Zealand plan. It is needless to say that the former is the preferable system, since it is always in the control of the parties concerned, and can be modified by them from time to time as they are taught by experience.

In St. Louis the strike of the street-car men has reached the last stage, which is generally a very short one, where an attempt is made to boycott the cars after all the lines have resumed operation. The scheme to cut off the revenues of an offending corporation by persuading a sympathetic public to patronize other means of transportation, always starts off well, and for a few days it looks as though the company could be starved out. But the number of people who will long endure daily inconvenience to maintain a principle is not large, and it dwindles rapidly when even those who feel most strongly, reflect how hopeless is the enterprise in which they have engaged. So the men who at first found a boyish pleasure in riding on an uncomfortable seat in an express wagon, while an open car went past almost empty, last week concluded that they were behaving in a pretty silly way, and the vehicles which were hastily devoted to new uses and at first were packed, became the empty ones. In St. Louis, the men who struck have not only gained nothing, like those in Chicago, but they have also lost their places. Meanwhile immense damage has been done to property, the business of the city has been seriously disturbed, and a number of lives have been lost. Here, too, is a case where it seems as though civilization had failed of its duty.

The awful calamity which befell the North German Lloyd Steamship Company in Hoboken on Saturday is without parallel in its kind. A modern naval battle would scarcely involve so much destruction of life and property. Everybody exclaims that such an accident ought to be impossible, and nearly everybody has some advice to give in order to prevent future disasters of this kind. One suggestion is that our piers ought to be built of granite instead of timber, but evidently granite piers would not have prevented the burning of the cotton and other material on them or the communication of the fire to the ships alongside them. Rear-Admiral Melville, who witnessed the horrible affair, makes the wise suggestion that the port-holes in passenger ships ought to be large enough for the body of a man weighing 200 pounds to pass through, saying that if these ships had been thus port-holed, most of the lives of the imprisoned crew would have been saved. It is evident, also, that if the ships which were exposed to this fire had had sufficient steam on to move themselves, the fire might have been restricted to the piers, and there would have been less loss of life. But these giants were inert and helpless. They were fastened to the piers by their own weight, and could not be moved till tugboats could be signalled and brought to their aid. The event points to the peril daily undergone by those who frequent the long piers to welcome or bid good-by to their tourist friends.

There is a State in the Union which has in its Constitution to-day a section providing that no free negro or mulatto, who was not a resident when the Constitution was adopted, "shall ever come, reside, or be within this State"; and also prohibiting any negro or mulatto, except one who lived in the State when the Constitution was adopted, from holding any real estate, or making any contract, or maintaining any suit. This

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seems incredible, but it is not so remarkable as the fact that the people of the State have recently had an opportunity to expunge these discriminations from the Constitution, but have failed to improve it, so that the anachronism will be continued into the twentieth century. When the question of Oregon's admission to the Union was pending in 1857, the people were allowed to vote on the question whether slavery should be tolerated in the State, and it was decided in the negative, three to one; and also on the question whether the refusal of residence and other rights to the free negro or the mulatto should be fixed in the fundamental law, which was carried, 8,640 to 1,081. There it has remained ever since, with its further provision that the Legislative Assembly should provide by penal laws for the removal by public officers of all such persons, for their effectual exclusion from the State, and for the punishment of any one who should bring negroes or mulattoes into the State or employ or harbor them. Of course, when the Fourteenth Amendment to the Federal Constitution was adopted, after the civil war, declaring that no State should make or enforce any law abridging the privileges or immunities of citizens of the United States, all these clauses of the Oregon Constitution became null and void. A proposition to wipe them out was submitted to the people at the recent State election, but it did not carry.

It is satisfactory to learn that the New York Chamber of Commerce has decided to create a standing Committee on State and Municipal Taxation. Such a committee will have a good deal of influence, not only on public opinion, but also on the Legislature, and it is unnecessary to state that such influence is demanded by the situation. The reasons assigned for this action in the report of the Chamber of Commerce constitute a severe arraignment of the present system. Expenditures for State and local administration are rapidly increasing, the rates of taxation are higher, and new taxes are continually imposed. The enterprises of individuals and corporations are driven from the State by unwise levies made upon them. The incorporation of joint-stock enterprises is hampered. Property is taxed, and the evidences of debt on the same are also taxed. Corporations of similar character are unequally taxed. There is a heavy tax on inheritances, and the collection of the tax is subject to extraordinary expenses, often apparently for political purposes. The taxation of franchises of a public sort proceeds on lines which may or may not be essentially just, but are certainly new, and require to be studied. It is by no means sure that taxes are collected with reasonable certainty. The basis of assessments is not constant, and the purposes for which the Board of Equalization was established are inadequately served by it. When it is considered that the tax rate often approximates to the interest rate, the attention of the most thoughtless observer should be arrested.

China has, for the moment, snuffed out South Africa, but events there still have great importance for the British Empire. There can be no doubt that the stubborn resistance of the Boers, and their settling down into guerrilla warfare, have been a disappointment to the English Ministry. The unexpectedly prolonged hostilities have had the effect of putting an end to the project, favored by Mr. Chamberlain, of having a general election in July. An autumn dissolution is still thought probable, in spite of, or because of, Mr. Balfour's evasion of a specific question on the subject in the House of Commons the other day. That even the military difficulties in South Africa are as yet by no means solved, is made evident by the Government's decision to hold all the troops there for the present. It would have been convenient to draw men from Lord Roberts's force to send to China, but they cannot be spared. And behind all is the question of pacification and final settlement. Two Ministers of the Crown spoke last week—one, the Duke of Devonshire, in a conciliatory vein, praising the Dutch and predicting their quiet acquiescence in English rule; Mr. Chamberlain was more truculent, declaring that a party existed in England willing to throw away the "fruits" of the war. But neither Conservatives nor Liberals can devise a plan of settlement which will succeed unless it follow the lines laid down by John Bright in 1849. He said:

> "People tell me I want to abandon our colonies; but I say, Do you intend to hold your colonies by the sword, by armies and ships of war? That is not a permanent hold upon them. I want to retain them by their affections."

The reports from India concerning the termination of the drought are cheering, but they furnish no reason for relaxing our efforts to relieve the starving people. Rains are indispensable, but human beings cannot live on water, and it will be many months before a new supply of food can be raised. In order to raise crops, the ground must be tilled and seed must be sown. The cattle employed in tillage have to a great extent died of starvation, and the grain required for seed has been applied to the relief of present hunger. The letter addressed by Lord George Hamilton, the Indian Secretary, to our Ambassador, shows that the Indian Government recognizes its responsibilities to the fullest extent. The task, however, can only be performed, as he says, wholesale. Nearly 6,000,000 persons are, in one way or another, maintained by the Indian Government, which has a sufficient fund for the purpose, and could rely on the Imperial Government for assistance should its own resources be exhausted. But the very magnitude of the scale on which official relief is carried on, shows the urgent need of private benevolence. Many classes and many individuals are not reached, and cannot be reached, by Government officers. Funds subscribed by private charity are administered by agencies in which the non-official element predominates, and money so distributed does more good than the subventions of the Government. Lord George Hamilton assures the benevolent that what they give will neither be wasted, nor tend to diminish the official contributions. It will relieve cases of individual distress that would otherwise be unavoidably disregarded or unnoticed. The statements contained in this letter do not constitute an appeal by the Indian Government, but are a dignified explanation of the character of the crisis, and they will stimulate the charitable to renewed exertions.

The extent of the efforts of the Indian Government appears from the letter of Lady Curzon to the Famine Relief Committee of Chicago. The dearth is more widely extended than on any previous occasion, and while it is believed that the deaths will be fewer, far more persons are suffering. The amounts expended in direct relief by the Government are $26,000,000, in suspensions and remissions of land revenue $10,000,000, in advances for the purchase of seed and cattle, $6,000,000, and $5,000,000 in loans to the distressed States. The Relief Committee has, through various channels, disbursed $2,500,000. These figures cannot be read, in spite of their deplorable cause, without a certain exultation. They show a better side of government, and of humanity, than wars professing to be benevolent. It would seem that such disbursements must seriously modify the financial estimates of the Indian Government. For the year now ending, the revenue was estimated to exceed that of the previous year, and the surplus was to be greater. The land revenue was to be nearly $5,000,000 less, and that from salt nearly $1,000,000. On the other hand, the revenue from opium, from stamps, from excise, and from railroads and the post, was to be materially increased. The relief of famine was expected to absorb over $10,000,000, which was to be nearly met by reducing appropriations for military purposes from $80,000,000 to less than $72,000,000. If the expenditure has been so great as Lady Curzon supposes, there must certainly be a large deficit in the Indian Treasury, even in the improbable event that the revenue comes up to the estimates. The amount of the deficit, however, will be much smaller than the cost of most frontier wars.

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THE PLATFORM THAT FAILED.

In Saturday's *Tribune* Senator Foraker testified that he was not present at the last two meetings of the sub-committee on platform at the Philadelphia Convention, and does not know what was done at those meetings. He has a clear recollection that the first draft of the platform which the committee considered had been prepared by Mr. Charles Emory Smith and others; that the first part was an extended eulogy of President McKinley and his achievements, and that it was followed by planks on the financial question, the merchant marine (subsidy question), and the authority of Congress over the Territories. There were four meetings of the sub-committee. Foraker attended the first and second. At the first one he says that Mr. Quigg objected to the recitation of President McKinley's achievements as being too long, and not in good form, but that no one raised objection to the other planks, either then or at the next meeting. As he (Foraker) was "unavoidably absent" from the two later meetings, he cannot say anything about the changes made subsequently. In other words, Foraker fails to sustain Gen. Grosvenor's charges against Quigg, and leaves the victory with the latter, as we supposed would be the outcome when the charges were first made. Foraker contributes one item regarding his own mental attitude towards the platform. He says that in view of the fight over the power of Congress to govern Porto Rico, he thought it highly appropriate to insert a plank approving the position taken by Congress, and was very much disappointed to learn that it had been omitted.

That aggrieved rhetorician, Postmaster-General Smith, has at last caused to be published the splendid "Original Draft," of his composing. We do not wonder he feels hurt at its rejection. Such a "hoight of foine language" was never before offered in vain to a committee. This one evidently had no sense for style. Budding Burkes in the freshman class have often had their purple patches scissored out by the professor of rhetoric, with similar cruelty; but they usually hug their griefs in private. Freshman Smith bewails his in public. He acts much as Seward would have done if he had run to the press with a full account of the way in which Lincoln had cut to pieces his eloquent, but most imprudent, dispatch to Adams in 1861. "Leave out," "drop all this," wrote Lincoln freely on the margin of the Secretary's original draft; but Seward left it all to the historian. He, however, was not an editor with the "news sense"; perhaps he was not as proud of his style as Mr. Smith evidently is.

There was, for example, at the very beginning, a passage which would have won applause in any boys' debating society. Mr. Smith wrote of the Republican party, in a stately rhetoric that the youngest reporter on the staff of his newspaper might have envied:

> "Always the distinctive party of liberty and progress, it fulfils historic fitness that its crucial delivery should go forth from the sacred place where the Declaration of Independence was signed, and where the Constitution was framed. Its birth, midway in freedom's century, brought the emancipation of four millions of bondmen; and in the zenith of its career and power, the close of that century is crowned by the liberation of ten millions of the human family from the yoke of oppression."

Yet a rude and unfeeling committee left that all out.

But worse was to come—we do not mean worse writing, but worse treatment of Smith. He had determined to show the President the value of having a grateful and ready writer in the Cabinet, and had prepared a true and frank statement of McKinley's greatness, which he submitted to his chief, confident that it would meet with the approval of that modest man, as Smith says it did. This was the plank, of which the committee and the Convention left but a splinter:

> "In all this eventful and matchless history of success at home and triumphs abroad, our masterful leader has been the true patriot and the upright statesman, who has walked untried paths and faced unforeseen responsibilities with serene wisdom and lofty courage and patient fortitude. Clear in vision, strong in judgment, and firm in action, he has directed our momentous policies in the true spirit of American institutions and with abiding faith in the American people. His universally recognized nobility of mind and heart has inspired the confidence and won the affection of his countrymen, and for the completion of his great and unfinished work we invoke the coöperation of all patriotic citizens, without distinction of party, in the reëlection of President William McKinley."

Now we know what Smith means when he says that the platform he drew was the one "McKinley wanted to stand on." Any candidate might well desire to run for the Presidency on the proposition that he was so wise, good, and great that "all patriotic citizens" ought to vote for him. The obtuse platform committee, however, balked at that "masterful leader" business. Perhaps they thought people would consider it a joke, as applied to McKinley. Anyhow, the play of their knife about this pet plank of the adulatory Smith was as fearful as that of the man whom Thackeray saw dining on a Mississippi steamboat. Yet Smith is not without comfort. He records the fact that the President "scanned" and "approved" the restrained description of himself. The "masterful leader" smiles; what are the frowns of one ignorant committee?

There were many other interesting points of divergence between the "original draft," with the stamp of Executive approval upon it, and the form adopted by the Convention. There was a beautiful tribute to the Administration's "diplomatic achievements, without parallel in our annals," but it all went out except the barest mention of the "open door" in China. "We welcome the people of Hawaii, Porto Rico, and the Philippines to the fellowship of our republican institutions," wrote the expansive Smith. Pshaw! said the committee; what you meant to say is this: "We approve the annexation of the Hawaiian Islands." So the butchery of a masterpiece went on.

The committee must, in fairness, be judged by the amount of gush and adulation which they resisted and rejected. No one thought the official platform any great affair; but at least it was not that fulsome and flaunting thing which was devised in the Kitchen Cabinet. And the committee, moreover, distinctly strengthened the party deliverances in one or two points where McKinley would have infected them with his own indecision. The final platform squarely said, "We renew our allegiance to the principle of the gold standard." The version that pleased McKinley was simply a vague recitation of the fact that "the pledge of the gold standard has been fulfilled, . . . and we again announce our opposition to the free and unlimited coinage of silver *except by international agreement.*" How Bryan will grin when he discovers McKinley's attempt to "hedge" again on the silver question, and what use he will make of it in his speeches! Nor had the President's platform one word to say about civil-service reform, or the appointment of natives to office in Cuba, Porto Rico, Hawaii, and the Philippines. In both these respects the committee supplied at least a perfunctory expression where the President would have been suspiciously silent. All told, with such a mushy mess as the committee had ladled out to it from Washington, the wonder is that the final result was as little nauseating as it proved.

HOW TO DEAL WITH TRUSTS.

That the Trust issue is to be of some importance in the coming campaign there is no doubt. Nor is it doubtful that, if votes are to be gained by merely harping on the word Trust, the Democrats will make a net gain, notwithstanding that the Tammany leaders have been detected in a very odious Trust of their own. The fact remains that the Republicans are more identified in the public mind with capital and combinations of capital than the Democrats are. The Ice Trust is local, and its damaging political effect will be limited mainly to its sphere of operations, while the Trusts in general are coextensive with the country. It remains to be seen whether the outcry against them can be maintained effectively through a Presidential campaign, and whether it will yield any important results at the polls.

That there is a vast deal of demagogy in the declamation and legislation against Trusts, it is needless to repeat. Yet there are some features of these latter-day inventions that call for grave

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attention, and are now obtaining it at the hands of the best thinkers in the United States. In this category Prof. J. B. Clark of Columbia University must be classed. He has gained distinction in the field already by contributing to the literature of the subject a good definition of the word Trust, as it presents itself to the public eye. He says that a Trust is "any combination of capital large enough to be dangerous."

Professor Clark continues his examination of the phenomenon which goes by the name of Trust, in the June number of the *Political Science Quarterly*, and he deals with it in a very vigorous way. His article is not in the least recondite or hard to understand. Although he recognizes all the difficulties which legislation must encounter in seeking to regulate Trusts and to curtail the evils which attach to them, and are, perhaps, inherent in them, he points out remedies for some of them. He has a thorough contempt for buncombe. The spirit in which he enters upon his task is shown in the following introductory paragraph:

"More general than the opinion that the Trusts ought to be crushed is the conviction that they will not down. They are here to stay, and we know it. An explanation of the light-hearted way in which we put upon the statute-books laws that aim to crush them, is found in the fact that such laws do their principal work before they are enacted, when they are nothing but planks in political platforms. In the present temper of the public mind severe measures are at least good for the party that promises them; and if, by an experiment or two, it is shown that they are not workable, there is the less danger in continuing to enact them into laws. In general, political platforms have of late required prohibitive statutes, with pains and penalties attached to them; and though such statutes have frequently been enacted, so far as large results are concerned, that has been the end of it."

The first remedy which Professor Clark proposes is publicity. In this he has been preceded by President Hadley, and the same remedy was suggested ten years ago by Abram S. Hewitt, in an address before the Institute of Mining Engineers, in which the reasons for publicity were expounded with great force and candor. "This principle," he said, "is already recognized and enforced with reference to savings and other banks, insurance and trust companies, and railway corporations. It has not yet been applied to industrial organizations, but these now exist on so large a scale and employ so many men, disputes with whom affect the public convenience and interests so seriously, that every safeguard should be applied to prevent the disturbance and dislocation of industry. Publicity as to profits and losses would at once remove the most serious cause of strikes," etc. The power of the press and of enlightened public opinion, Mr. Hewitt believed, would do away with most of the evils complained of, if all the facts regarding tne operations of Trusts and combinations of capital were at all times accessible.

Professor Clark shows what is meant by publicity, and why the light should be turned on the Trusts. In the first place, there is nothing that the Trusts dread so much as public knowledge of their business. May we not say, then, that whatever weakens our enemy strengthens us? While we require a railroad company to publish all of its doings down to the minutest fraction, we require no publicity at all concerning those of a Trust. Yet a Trust is composed of a body of two classes, *i. e.*, stockholders and officers, whose interests are by no means identical. The officers may transact the business in a way to make money for themselves at the expense of the stockholders, as well as of the consumers of their goods. There have been instances where the officers were strongly suspected of sacrificing their stockholders by "selling short," and then frightening the latter and forcing their shares on the market. In the interest of the shareholders, therefore, the law may rightfully require publicity.

How, it may be asked, will this help the public? The public will then know, says Professor Clark, "what plants they own, what they gave for them, what they are worth at present, for how much they can be duplicated, what appliances they contain, whether antiquated or modern—in short, what is the substantial basis for the value of stocks and bonds that are placed on the market." When all the facts of the business are made public, then if the Trusts charge too much for their products, competition will be excited, new mills will be built, and prices will come down. We understand that in some Trusts not even the directors are allowed to know the "bottom facts"; only the managing officers are admitted to such knowledge. The first step in the way of reform must be the uncovering of facts connected with the business.

The next step which Professor Clark advises is to abolish customs duties on all articles manufactured by Trusts. It is true that Trusts exist in free-trade countries, but their power for harm is very slight, and their powers here would be much curtailed if this remedy were applied. Professor Clark is not, however, in favor of a general attack on the tariff system, and he sees difficulties in the way of this remedy arising from the solidarity of the tariff interests. He considers the question whether it is possible to regulate by law the prices of goods made by Trusts, and thinks that this cannot be done. He asks also whether the State may enter the field as a manufacturer, either to compete with the Trusts or to take their place, and decides that this plan "must stand or fall with the general cause of socialism." He has no confidence in that remedy.

There is one other means of curbing the Trusts, and that is to open the door to competition with them where they have closed it or sought to close it. Professor Clark would have laws to prevent and punish what are called "factors' agreements," which are in reality boycotts, by which dealers in their goods are required to buy exclusively from them, they giving certain advantages in return. They should be compelled also to sell to all persons and to all sections of the country at the same price. It is their practice, upon occasion, to crush competitors in one place by lowering their prices there, while keeping them up or even raising them in all other places. This they are enabled to do by their enormous capital and their greater command of the market. Professor Clark thinks that this is one of the most crying evils of the Trust problem, and that it is a remediable one. At all events he would attack it by all the powers of the State.

THE JUDICIAL FUNCTIONS OF THE GOVERNOR.

In his speech at the Republican Convention in Philadelphia, Gov. Roosevelt declared that the foremost leaders of the Democratic party in this State had been discovered in a Trust which was really of infamous, and perhaps of criminal character; a Trust in which they sought to wring fortunes from the dire need of their poorer brethren. At the time when these statements were made, charges were pending against one of these leaders, the Mayor of New York, because of his interest in this Trust, upon which it was in the power of the Governor to remove him from office. Charges were also pending against the Comptroller of the city, a man whom the Governor had openly recognized as his most formidable competitor, and whom he can also remove from office. The same power exists in the case of the District Attorney, against whom also charges are now pressed. As to the merits of the charges against the Comptroller and the District Attorney, the Governor, so far as we are informed, has expressed no opinion. But as to the case of the Mayor, Gov. Roosevelt's declarations at Philadelphia show that he has prejudged it. It is unnecessary to prove that the Ice Company is of a criminal character in order to enable the Governor to act. His power of removal, after a hearing, is unqualified, and he can hardly justify a refusal to remove an officer whom he declares to be guilty of infamous extortion.

One of our best constitutional traditions is the supreme importance of separating the executive from the judicial functions of government. In spite of the modern contempt for the limitations of "outworn" constitutions, we cannot admit that the reasons for this separation of functions, so clearly stated in the 'Federalist,' have lost any of their force. On the contrary, they are of greater importance than ever before, and

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the recent protest against the nomination of Mr. Hazel for the office of Judge of a United States Court shows the strength of the feeling, not only of the bar, but also of the more intelligent part of the community, upon this matter. For what was involved in that case was really the independence and impartiality of the judiciary. Mr. Hazel was known, and known only, as a "politician"; an active partisan, having much influence with the Republican Administration. It was felt that in cases where the interests of influential Republicans were concerned, even if no party considerations were directly involved, Mr. Hazel would be disqualified for judicial functions. Even with the best intentions, he could not suddenly change his point of view, and consider the controversies submitted to him solely in the dry light of legal precedent. No ardent partisan, in short, is fitted to be a judge, for nowadays "politics" crops out in numberless controversies.

It will hardly be disputed that in removing an elected officer the Governor exercises a judicial function. Although his power is absolute, it is called forth by the presentation of charges, and the Constitution at least implies that the Governor shall decide according to the evidence submitted for and against these charges. Were a judge to express himself publicly concerning the merits of a case which was to come before him, as Gov. Roosevelt has expressed himself concerning the participation of the Democratic leaders in the ice monopoly, it would be thought highly indecorous. It would be said that he had made up his mind that the defendant was guilty before he had heard both sides, and that his decision could not be unbiassed. Were the judge known to be a violent partisan, who held his adversaries in supreme contempt, when he came to sit in judgment on them, with no law to restrain him and no higher court to overrule him, his decision against them would have no moral weight. We apprehend that much the same will be true if Gov. Roosevelt removes Mayor Van Wyck. We have no desire to justify that functionary, whom the city would be well rid of; but he would certainly pose as the victim of political persecution, and he would probably appeal for sympathy with a good deal of success. In fact, it would probably be "bad politics" for the Governor to remove him now, simply because it would be said that the power of the Executive was employed for partisan ends.

No doubt a Governor of greater wisdom than the present incumbent possesses would not have pronounced judgment in advance of trial; but the question is not a personal one. The power of removal on charges must be recognized as essentially judicial, and regulated according to judicial requirements. From time immemorial the Executive has been empowered to remove sheriffs and mayors, but the power has been exercised very seldom, and perhaps never except in cases where the misconduct was so gross as to be undefended. The development of our party system was never dreamed of when this power was conferred, nor was it imagined that any mayor would direct the affairs of a city of 3,500,000 inhabitants. Now, the Governor of New York has become the representative of one political party; and the Mayor of New York city may be the leader of the other. To ignore these changes is no longer safe; for it is absurd to suppose that the practice of resorting to the Governor to remove city officers will not grow, now that its political advantages are understood. Of course, some way of removing our mayors must be provided; such a thing has never been done, but we should be shocked at the possibility that it could not be done. The proceeding, however, has now become so serious a matter as to require to be conducted judicially, and the Executive may properly demand to be relieved from such functions. At present any newspaper or any individual may drag the Mayor or the Comptroller before the Governor by making charges, and the Governor may be placed in a very embarrassing position. In penal statutes it is not enough to speak of "charges," or of "high crimes and misdemeanors." It is practicable to define the offences for which removal from office should be the punishment, and to provide for the proof of guilt by judicial methods. When the charter is revised, this matter should be attended to, for if it is not, we shall be in danger of serious conflicts in the future.

CHINA AND IMPERIALISM.

The situation in China at the present time renders it possible to draw a clear distinction between the traditional American policy in cases where our citizens are put in peril while residing abroad, and the policy of Imperialism. The former would simply afford protection when it is demanded. The latter would improve any opportunity to seize territory of another country which might be afforded by the sending of troops within its limits, ostensibly for the simple purpose of saving the lives of citizens. The course of the United States hitherto, in all cases resembling the crisis in China now, has been consistent; there has been no attempt to utilize the chance advantage of a temporary lodgment to secure a permanent foothold. On the other hand, the Powers of Europe have repeatedly retained possession of territory by reason of the fact that their troops occupied it because of what was originally represented to be a mere exigency, certain soon to pass by.

When news came from China that American citizens and officials of the United States were in the greatest danger, it was the plain duty of the Administration at Washington to take immediate and effective measures for their protection. There was not an hour to lose, and the cost of the measures necessary was not to be considered. Inaction on the part of the Executive would have been a criminal breach of duty. Hair-splitting over the question whether the dispatch of troops would mean a state of war, and delaying to call Congress in special session a month later for consideration of that question would have been resented as the evasion of a plain and imperative obligation.

There can be no question that the nation supports the Administration in the prompt, efficient, and discreet action which it took when the emergency arose. It will continue this support so long as the policy pursued is consistent with these preliminary steps, and it appears that American fleets and troops are in China simply for the rescue of American citizens, and the assurance of their protection after the existing disturbances shall have been quelled. Just so long, moreover, shall we continue to enjoy the confidence of those Chinese who are familiar with our past history. A striking proof of this confidence is afforded in the dispatch from the Canton correspondent of the London *Telegraph*, who says:

> "Li Hung Chang trusts the Americans in this crisis, saying that they alone do not want territory, and he places himself almost without reserve in their hands. At an important conference on Monday, he reiterated that sentiment, and added that he was determined at all hazards to secure the best results for China and for the maintenance of the most friendly relations with the United States and other foreign Powers."

Li Hung Chang is entirely right in his belief that "the Americans do not want territory," so far as the people of this country are generally concerned. But there are undoubtedly interests in the United States which believe that it would be to their advantage, in case any proposition should be made by European Powers for a division of the Chinese Empire, that this nation should get its slice along with the rest. The strongest argument with these interests for the retention of the Philippines all along has been the claim that a vast deal of money was to be made by exploiting the islands.

There will be plenty of politicians quick to support such a movement in case it should be pressed. Already we find Republican Congressmen ready to break ground in favor of our seizing Chinese territory if we shall have a chance. Representative Bromwell of McKinley's own State, who is now serving his fourth term as member for the Cincinnati district, and who has been regarded as a conservative man, is quoted as talking in this strain on the subject:

> "If the Chinese Empire has to be divided, I am most certainly in favor of getting the proportion of territory that belongs to this country. The fact that we have the Phil-

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ippines will not insure us full commercial advantages if China goes into the hands of Europe. You may be sure that those countries are not risking anything to get some Chinese territory for the fun of the thing. It is commerce and trade they are after, and we cannot afford to be a minute behind in the same course, except that ours can be done under restrictions, and in keeping with our policy of going alone and independent of other nations."

When such a deliverance as this comes from a Congressman who is not considered a Jingo, it is evidently time for public opinion to express itself. The Administration should be left in no doubt as to the feeling of the people. The policy which Representative Bromwell advocates is rank Imperialism. It goes far beyond anything that has been done or recommended in the Philippines. The excuse for our staying there has been that we are forced to stay in order to discharge the obligations imposed by the treaty of peace with Spain. Here is the bald proposal to seize Chinese territory for no other purpose and with no other defence than to promote our commerce and trade. It will disgrace the American republic if what everybody in the world can recognize as out-and-out Imperialism, shall be adopted as the policy of our Government in China. The Administration should be protected from all temptation in this matter by the prompt notification of the people, through all the recognized organs of public opinion, that they would never support such a policy.

LOCAL GOVERNMENT IN IRELAND.

DUBLIN, June 4, 1900.

The Local Government Act of 1898, replacing the non-elective governing bodies by local councils for which every householder, man or woman, had a vote, has now been in operation for a year and a half. The underlying principle of the scheme, that every ratepayer should be an elector for those bodies which spend the rates, is one to which no valid objection could be made; and none was made except by the small minority, mainly landowners, who had heretofore raised and spent the local rates without any responsibility to those who paid them. Their opposition was bought off by exempting them from all local rates on their rental. A landlord now pays rates only on the land he actually occupies, and, if he is an absentee, may draw a rental of ten or twenty thousand pounds a year from his property without contributing to the local expenditure on roads, drainage, water supply, poor relief, etc., which are necessary to the maintenance of the value of his estate.

It is difficult to convey any idea of the appalling complexity of the Local Government Act. That is a special characteristic of all English legislation for Ireland. What is conceded in the way of reform is controlled, checked, and often taken away by qualifying and modifying sections. The Local Government Act contains about 50,000 words; but this is only a small fraction of the law, for the Act provides that a vast number of subjects are to be dealt with by orders of the Lord Lieutenant and the Local Government Board; and a mass of orders and rules, ten times more voluminous than the principal act, have been issued. Then no less than fifty-six English, Irish, and Scotch Acts of Parliament are incorporated wholly or "so far as they are capable of being applied." Sixteen Acts are wholly repealed, but there are eighty-six Acts of which sections, parts, and in some cases words only are repealed. All these must be read with the Local Government Act of 1898. Thus, the new Act, apart from some few principal provisions, is rather an index to 152 other Acts, and to an immense volume of orders and rules, than a law in itself. The obscurities and meanings of all these directly enacted, incorporated, and referred to provisions can be cleared up and explained only by judicial decisions; and a body of "case law" is already emerging from the many suits that have arisen. The interests of the poorest classes about the simplest matters are still in doubt. For instance, the liability of weekly tenants to pay yearly rates will either impose a new and unexpected burden on the many poor who rent cottages by the week, or occasion a loss to the rate-collecting body; for the person supposed to be liable may be here to-day and gone to-morrow. The attempt to levy rates for the year from persons who have hitherto paid them in their rent, week by week, has already raised local storms.

The local governing bodies now are County Councils, Borough Councils, Urban and Rural District Councils. For certain general purposes, such as main roads, public buildings, and general sanitary works, the County Councils can tax or obtain contributions from the included areas, and great difficulty has been found in ascertaining what the proper contributions are from the smaller areas. The Local Government Board, consisting of the Chief Secretary, the Under-Secretary, and four Commissioners in Dublin, is supreme over all the councils. It supervises, controls, directs, advises, and can enforce obedience on almost every question. Its members are appointed by the Lord Lieutenant; it is in no sense representative, and is on most questions opposed to popular feeling. It has unlimited powers of interference, subject only to the possibility of a refractory council appealing to the law courts. It approves or disallows the appointment of all employees of the local councils, claims the right to settle what salary each officer shall be paid, and the terms and tenure of his office. Some central control of the local councils is desirable, and rigid supervision is necessary to secure uniformity of administration, accuracy of accounts, and financial purity; but the interference of the Board goes far beyond general measures to secure these, and is already arousing the hostility of councils and ratepayers throughout the country. Extravagance was the main fault debited in advance by prophets of evil to the new councils; but the reverse proves to be the case. The councils, knowing the local circumstances, engage competent surveyors, secretaries, medical officers at what they deem sufficient salaries, which those officers are willing to accept; but the Central Board requires in one case that the surveyor's salary shall be £800 instead of £600, in another £550 instead of £500; that the road overseers in one county engaged at £100 a year shall be paid £150, and so on through all grades from chaplains to midwives. As a rule, the local councils are Catholic as well as representative; the Central Board is Protestant, unrepresentative, and unacquainted with local circumstances and requirements. It is supposed that Protestant officials use undue and secret influence with the Board for their private advantage. Such interference with the salaries and tenure of the officials of the local councils has aroused a mutinous spirit among them. They are inclined to set their employers and paymasters at defiance, trusting to the Central Board to support them. A medical officer obtained two weeks' leave of absence, his council undertaking to pay a substitute for that time. The Central Board decided he should have three weeks' leave, and that his substitute should be paid for that time; but on the case coming before the Court of Queen's Bench for recovery of the third week's pay, the judges decided in favor of the local council, condemning in the plainest terms the unwarrantable interference of the Central Board. It is only in rare cases that disputes between the councils and the Board can come before the courts, but already the Board has had some bad falls for illegal and unwarrantable interference. The tendency of unrepresentative bodies is to be overbearing and tyrannical. More friendly suggestion, guidance, and helpfulness, less censorship, control, and restraint are needed from the Central Board.

The best effects of the new Act are to be seen in the relations between the local councils and their constituents, the ratepayers. Notwithstanding the grant in aid of the local rates from the national exchequer, rates have risen, partly owing to the complexity of the Act and its administration; partly owing to increased salaries and liberal retiring pensions ordered by the Central Board, and partly owing to the increased requirements of the ratepayers. I live in a small urban district with a population of 3,000, managed by a council of twelve members. For thirty years before 1898 there had hardly ever been an election. There was a high property franchise, and the local Board usually co-opted its own members. Now there is an election every year of three members, that number retiring by rotation every year, but being capable of reëlection. The old Board was practically a family party; its characteristic was unapproachableness. A ratepayer who was not on terms socially with the Board could hardly get attention or even a civil answer to a complaint. The sanitation of the poorer parts was as bad as could be. The new Board are, above all things, civil—any and every ratepayer will at least be listened to; the proceedings are carried on in public; we know what is going on, and who are the active and responsible members. In the space of a year the roads in the district have been properly kept—not, as in old days, only those which led to the houses of the Board. Many long-complained-of nuisances have been abated; the water supply and public lighting have been extended to neglected parts of the district, and the Council have built twenty good laborers' cottages to replace insanitary cabins. In fact, though much remains to be done, the district has been improved, and every ratepayer takes an intelligent interest in what is being done. Many things cannot be done because, for every public improvement which would involve the taking of land or rights over land compulso-

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rily, it would be necessary to get the assent of Parliament at Westminster at a cost which might amount to a year's income of the district. It was the intention of the Act that all rates should be collected by one body, the local council contributing its proportion to other bodies for common purposes. As the Act, hurried like all Irish measures, and much of it passed after midnight by means of the closure, turned out, this intention was not carried out. I still have to pay three different rate-collectors and to pay for their office expenses and salaries. Rates have risen and are likely to be still higher, though there is room for much economy in collection and administration.

On the whole, the Local Government Act is an improvement, but one cannot but see how much better and simpler a measure would have been passed if it had been framed by Irishmen in Dublin and discussed there under daily local criticism, instead of being forced through Parliament in Westminster by the votes of a majority who knew nothing of Ireland, who cared nothing about the details of the measure, and who were under no sense whatever of responsibility to the persons affected by its operation.

A comparison of the Local Government Boards in England and Ireland illustrates one of the chief vices of the English government of Ireland. The central Board in England costs that country £197,000 a year, or about £6 per 1,000 inhabitants. It is managed by a President, a member of the Cabinet paid £2,000 a year, assisted by a Parliamentary and a permanent Secretary, whose salaries amount to £2,800. The Central Board in Ireland costs £140,000 a year, or £31 per 1,000 inhabitants. The President is the Chief Secretary, with no special salary for this office, and nominally the head of many other boards and general administrator of Ireland. The Under-Secretary for Ireland is an ex-officio member; the Vice-President receives £2,000 a year, the same salary as the English President. His duties are shared by three Commissioners receiving between them £3,600 a year, and this Board of six members is assisted by a suitable staff of secretaries and clerks. England has always been very generous in spending Irish taxes. Eighty years ago Sydney Smith said: "Our establishments are so enormous, and so utterly disproportioned to our population, that every second or third man you meet in society gains something from the public." No change has been made in that respect; it is one of the established methods of preserving "loyalty" in Ireland. Here we have a Board of six highly paid officials, out of harmony with public opinion, to do what would be much better done, and is better done at a fifth of the cost in England, by one man who represents and is responsible to the public for his administrative acts and policy. AN IRISHMAN.

THE PARIS EXPOSITION.—II.

FRENCH FINE-ARTS SECTION.—I.

PARIS, June, 1900.

Any one whose special interest at the Paris Exhibition is in the Fine-Arts Section must, I think, pass, as I did, through an interval of bewilderment and discouragement. The things one has come to see are everywhere. Statues line certain of the avenues and alleys, and form an essential element in the architectural scheme; paintings and mosaics and gesso adorn the façades of building after building, and, in many cases, the names of the artists figure in the catalogues as if their work were part of the collection in the galleries. Nor can you enter a building, from the Salle des Fêtes or any of the foreign pavilions, to the gayest little theatre in the grounds, without finding pictures or mural decorations of more or less importance. Finally, there are the two huge palaces devoted solely to art. There is more, really, than could be comfortably seen in a lifetime.

It was for this reason that, as a result of my first bewilderment, I determined to devote myself and my time chiefly to the art of the century. I do not mean that I did not go to the Petit Palais des Beaux-Arts and enjoy the marvellous Retrospective Exhibitions arranged by M. Molinier and M. Marcou. The interior of the building is still more successful than the exterior; the galleries are large and spacious; the decoration is simple, and it is only on looking into the central court that the eye is confused and wearied by the endless ornament, elsewhere the rule. And there is no overcrowding of exhibits. It seemed to me the most restful retreat in the Exposition—and, moreover, a retreat filled with beautiful things. The art of France from the earliest ages is represented. There are ivories, bronzes, and enamels; tapestries, armor, and embroideries; furniture, woodcarvings, and a few pictures, admirably arranged; and I have brought away with me an impression of rich stuffs and gorgeous color that I cannot quickly forget, and would not, if I could. But, after all, while many of the examples shown are of unusual interest, all these different arts and the periods they cover can be studied in other galleries, and I believe a permanent collection of the same kind is to find a place in the Petit Palais after the Exposition is over. On the other hand, the chances are that never again will there be such a complete display of the painting, sculpture, and engraving of the century as that which is now made in the Grand Palais, and, here and there, overflows into the gardens and smaller halls and pavilions.

This Palace consists of two long lateral wings, connected by two lines of galleries, the whole, in form, not unlike the letter H. You enter from the Avenue Nicolas II. into an oblong court, which, at the first glance, is so small in proportion to the façade that it becomes oppressive. A long hall leads from it to the charming circular court of the smaller wing which faces the Avenue d'Antin. In these two courts and the galleries enclosing them are three distinct collections: first, the Centennial, consisting of French paintings and sculpture, drawings and prints, from the beginning of the century down to the last International Exposition; the effort having been successfully made not to repeat the exhibits of 1889. And with this series a little furniture is shown—the first time furniture has been thus introduced. Second, the Decennial, composed of the work of French artists during the past ten years; and, third, the Foreign, which includes the productions during the same period of artists of all other countries.

There is no question that in France most of the great art movements of the century have originated. I do not belittle the part played by Bonington and Constable in its early years; I will even admit that Byron and Scott "made Romanticism in France." But it was only in that country that their influence became a vital factor, destined to move the whole world of art and literature. A centennial collection of French pictures is, therefore, an indispensable introduction to the study of contemporary schools and tendencies. Of course, there are the modern series in the Louvre and the Luxembourg, and scattered through French provincial museums. But in the Louvre serious gaps occur, and I know of no gallery so ill arranged as that to which you must go to study Ingres and Delacroix, Corot, and the men of Barbizon, while, to come down to living artists, the journey must be taken across the Seine to the Luxembourg. But here, in one long succession of pleasant, well-hung, and not over-decorated galleries, you pass from the dull and decorous conventions of the First Empire to the gallant crusade of the Restoration, from the fierce fight for independence of the seventies to the calm of to-day that threatens the inauguration of a new era of dull and decorous conventionalism. There is no period more interesting in the history of art in France—no period more romantic in the history of art in any country.

The first two or three rooms of the Centennial Collection are sufficient to justify the Romantic rebellion against the Classic, or, for that matter, to account for any excess or orgy of independence. Were it not for the importance of the work historically and the personal distinction of some of the painters, you would not have the patience to linger in these galleries. Greuze did not die until the century was five years old, but his pictures, as you see them here, cannot detain you with pleasure. His sentiment, at his best, is overdone; at anything less than his best, it is unbearable. Prudhon, an Independent before the time was ripe for independence, and a few others of minor note, share the first gallery with him. But Prudhon, though here and there a portrait by him is full of character—none so much so, however, as an almost Hals-like old woman by the now wholly forgotten Guiard—always seems to me to fall just short of the charm that ought, by rights, to be found in him. And after Prudhon come the painters who were looked upon as giants by their contemporaries, and with whom it is impossible for us to sympathize: David and the men so influenced by him—Gros, Gérard, Girodet, Guérin—that they either never dared to develop whatever originality was in them, or else, as with Gros, were quick to suppress it in obedience to orders. Their pictures are without depth, without atmosphere or light; the color—but there is no color; they are dull, murky, brown, dirty; not time itself can mellow them. They excite an interest, made up partly of wonder that they ever passed for masterpieces, partly for delight in their historical associations, and just a little for irritation because, being so capable, they are nothing more. For the pictures are capable, and the painters were accomplished after their fashion. There is one portrait here by David, of a young man, over whose striking face a high felt hat throws a strong shadow, that

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has something of the quality of an old master, and makes you resent the more the rigid classic convention to which he sacrificed all that was finest in him. But this portrait is an exception, and though you cannot help stopping before the sketch by Gros for the "Combat de Nazareth" (the picture never finished because Napoleon probably objected to the glorification of Junot), or before the large equestrian portrait of Napoleon himself after the battle of Marengo, from Compiègne, or the other Napoleonic records, there is scarcely a canvas that appeals to you as a picture. And it is curious, too, to note that, while it is the habit to praise the classic group for at least their technical knowledge and skill, the big *machines* of David and Gros—the huge "Distribution des Aigles," from Versailles, or the "Embarquement de Madame d'Angoulême," from Bordeaux—simply prove how much better that sort of thing is done by the still more skilful painters of to-day.

Into the midst of these emotionless classical exercises, Géricault breaks with a passion that is irresistible. There are only a few of his paintings—the sketch for the famous "Radeau de la *Méduse*," another for a Race, a third for a portrait of a chasseur, a little "Trompette" and "Cheval arrêté par des Esclaves"—and these few are not over well hung. But they arrest you at once. They are as full of life and vitality as those that preceded them are inanimate. They have the very qualities the Classicists despise, depth, atmosphere, color; above all, emotion. Here, at last, you realize, is a man who has seen things for himself, and who has cared too much for the way he has seen them to adapt his method of expression to the cut-and-dried principles of any school. I think you must discover Géricault in such company to recognize the force of his genius, to understand why the "Radeau de la *Méduse*," in the Salon of 1812, has been considered the first Proclamation of Romanticism. The advantage of an exhibition of this kind is that it not only shows you pictures you have hitherto known by reputation only, but shows them in their proper relation to contemporary work, which makes all the difference. I fancy to many people, as to me, Géricault in his present surroundings will come as a revelation.

Had Géricault lived, there is no doubt that he must have towered head and shoulders above the men of his generation whose names are now more widely honored. To be honest, there is a glamour about the Romantic movement, the gallant rebellion of *les Jeunes* of 1830, that blinds us to its true proportions. We borrow, despite ourselves, the enthusiasm, the flamboyancy, the exaggeration of the young men themselves—the most amusing, self-conscious, posing young men, surely, who ever lived. We, too, march under the banner of the Red Waistcoat, won over by the headlong eloquence of the critics of the day to whom Eugène Devéria—the man of one picture—was the modern Veronese, and Delaroche a cross between Van Dyck and Rembrandt, and Léopold Robert another Raphael! The drawback to Romanticism, Heine wrote of the Salon of 1831, was that every man was striving too hard to develop his own personality. But when it comes to facts, when you refuse to be blinded by the glamour, what a very poor thing that personality seems to have been in most cases! As you see their work in the Exposition, you are amazed at the commonplace—the characterless commonplace—of the Devérias, the Célestin-Nanteuils, the Roqueplans, the men of forgotten reputation, whose names, Heine thought, deserve the most distinguished consideration. The conditions were much the same then as now. It was natural, no doubt, that each young man who rebelled against the David tradition, looked upon himself as a genius, and was so honored by his friends. But the majority, then as now, were painters of mediocre talent; only one or two were artists of distinction.

In the period that immediately followed David, the two great names are Ingres and Delacroix. It requires another effort of honesty to admit that both, here, are in a measure a disappointment. Ingres was the perfect draughtsman, but his painting—even the renowned "Source" of the Louvre—has always left me cold and indifferent. Nor do I think there is anything in the Exposition as fine as the "Italian Lady," also in the Louvre. A partly effaced fresco by an artist unknown, on the wall opposite, has more character and life and sincerity than the whole array of his portraits, and, to me at all events, the two little versions of the "Francesca di Rimini" are marred by every sentimental fault of the age. The single picture in which I could take pleasure was the "Entry of Charles V. into Paris," a small canvas, in which he is more primitive than the Primitives, far surpassing the more deliberate efforts of later Pre-Raphaelites. To see Ingres as the master, as the great artist he is, you must go up stairs to the gallery of drawings, where there is a wonderful series of his portraits in pencil lent by M. Bonnat. It savors almost of heresy to bracket Ingres with Delacroix, for no two painters could have been more opposed in ideals and methods. But they are alike at the Exposition in the disappointment they have in store for the student. The trouble with Delacroix is that we know too much about him, and expect too much. We have read his journal and his letters, we have read the criticism of men who admired him with the intensity of Baudelaire, and before his pictures we can never forget the greatness of his intellect, the nobility of his ambition, the independence of his standpoint. But, I asked myself as I stood in the gallery where as many as sixteen of his canvases are hanging, had I chanced upon them unawares, would the color have struck me as very much richer and more beautiful than the color of the Classicists; would his personality have appeared so defiant; would his intellectual powers have proved so staggering, his emotions so stirring? I am afraid not. His larger pictures here, the "St. Sebastian" from the church at Nantua, the "Grèce expirante sur les Ruines de Missolonghi," are formal, almost academic. It is only in an occasional little sketch that a sudden splendor of color or the rhythmical expression of movement stirs you with an appreciation of what Delacroix wanted to do, but so seldom achieved, because, probably, of the intellectual qualities for which we admire him. I found myself turning from his work with relief to two sombre, stately landscapes by Decamps in the same room—landscapes, one empty save for the glory of the afterglow, one with a line of dark mysterious figures against a low rift of gold in a clouded sky, that seem to breathe the very spirit of Romanticism, to be filled with the beauty and mystery that just eluded the grasp of Delacroix. I found myself thinking that there was far more honest emotion in "Le Port de Dieppe" by Isabey; that even Chassériau could be, at times, as effective.

Really, after Géricault, the first man to arrest you in the midst of the Horace Vernets, and the Scheffers, and the Lamis, to overwhelm you with his originality, is Daumier, better and more widely known as lithographer and caricaturist than as painter. Now and then I have come across his pictures in the smaller London galleries that make a point of exhibiting nothing but the work of the masters, but never have I seen so many collected together. There are eighteen, and they are well chosen; characteristic studies of the lawyers he so often caricatured in black-and-white, strolling players as romantic and picturesque as Gautier's, the popular types he loved, Don Quixote, the hero of whom he never tired, the Republic, symbolized as a statuesque figure that explains why his friends compared him to Michelangelo—altogether a marvellous array. No painter of the day was so genuinely a Romanticist in his attitude. To the larger number of the ambitious youths of 1830, revolt against the Classic meant merely that they consulted Byron and Scott where the older school had searched their Plutarch. But to Daumier, subject was nothing; everything depended on the way of looking at it. To him there was romance in the washerwoman as in the Knight of La Mancha, in the emigrant as in Sancho Panza. His inspiration was not in the Laras and Mazeppas, the Pirates and Corsairs, the Fausts and Margarets, then so popular, but in the space of white wall transfigured in the sunlight, in the dramatic swing and rhythm of a crowd rushing through the street, in the character of a face. He was a poet in paint, and he thrilled to the harmony of color, the melody of line. I returned again and again to the gallery (No. VIII.) where these masterpieces are hanging; the near Lamis and Devérias disappear before them, and I do not believe it will any longer be possible not to give him the place that is his by rights among the painters of the century. I notice that the canvases come from private collections; it is time as representative a series should hang in a national museum.

In the Exposition, Courbet precedes Daumier, but I have waited to speak of him because he is more closely related to the Barbizon group that follows. Upon the men of this group no new light is thrown, nothing added to our knowledge of them. Fortunately, Courbet, Troyon, Millet, Rousseau, Diaz, Corot, Daubigny, Dupré, Jacque, Monticelli have not had to wait until now to be awarded their proper rank as artists. They had their struggles for recognition, as so many great artists have had and probably always will have; they had their years of official neglect when canvases, now found worthy to adorn the walls of the Louvre, were banished to the Salon des Refusés. But they outlived the first burst of scorn and contempt; even Millet, who, in his biographies, figures as the life-long martyr to academic and bourgeois ignorance. To-day, their pictures have but to be put up at auction to

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complete their vindication in the eyes of the collector; the artist, of course, always knew their value. I have seen finer single examples, but never a more representative series. There are, for instance, early landscapes by Corot, in Rome, in Chartres, in which his manner was lighter than in the more familiar and accomplished idyls of his maturity, and also many of his rare portraits and figure subjects. Monticelli also appears in his different periods, more completely in the noblest of all, when his fantasies were the painted music they have been called, full of the clangors of gold and scarlet and bronze. There are several of the portraits Courbet never tired of painting of himself—among them, the stilted, youthful, promising "Bonjour, Monsieur Courbet," from the museum at Montpellier; there is as curious an early portrait of an officer by Millet; while Daubigny, and Troyon, Dupré, Diaz, and Jacque can be as thoroughly studied. The several galleries devoted to these landscapes make virtually an exposition within the Exposition.

However much the men of the little group differed, in style and method, in one respect all were agreed—except, perhaps, at times, Courbet, I mean in their love for beauty, whether of tree forms or sunlight, of vast aerial distances or running water, of the quiet village by the lake or the mysterious forest depths, of cattle at pasture or peasants in the field. If they rose joyfully to the challenge of Constable and Bonington, they could not altogether forget Claude and Poussin. To pass from them at once to Manet, and Degas, and Monet, as you must if you adhere to the order of the Exposition and of time, is to feel less surprise at the universal condemnation with which the younger generation of painters, whom also the public has learned to accept, were, in their turn, greeted upon their first appearance. The two schools are as far apart as if centuries separated them; the reason, it may be, why the work of Manet, Degas, and Monet hangs in the upstairs galleries, an immediate prelude to the modern or Decennial Collection; certainly the reason why I wait to speak of it until I begin my account of this modern collection.

N. N.

SOME PIEDMONTESE SANCTUARIES.

ALASSIO, May, 1900.

Nearly all the Americans who have visited Italy will have memories of some sanctuary, a pilgrimage church, wherein the walls about a gaudily decorated altar are hung with hearts in beaten silver, interspersed with legs and arms in the same metal; all of them tokens of gratitude for miraculous cures or other graces of the Madonna or saint to whom the church is dedicated. Occasionally the church has some charm of architecture, of painting or sculpture, or of picturesque arrangement; but in general the impression left is of tasteless splendor, and, incidentally, of the boundlessness of human credulity.

But how many travellers are there who know anything about a little group of sanctuaries of an utterly different type—quite unlike, indeed, so far as I know, anything to be seen elsewhere—all gathered almost within sight of one another in a corner of Piedmont, which, in respect of art, is generally thought of as a sort of Cinderella among the divisions of north Italy! *Almost within sight* is a figure of speech; they are all within a radius of fifty kilometres from Novara, and this centre is visible from two, at least, of the sanctuaries. Of those who have seen their glories, few have celebrated, or ever felt, their value; partly, no doubt, because these have not as yet had the fortune to receive the stamp of approval of any of those popular writers who, in matters of art, inform the crowd where it is to place its enthusiasms; and also, it may be owned beforehand, because it is not always easy for the ignorant to separate the gold from the dross, and these jewels are of a sort not readily to be appreciated by them.

Moreover, the sanctuary of this group most frequently seen is lowest in artistic importance. In the times that preceded the introduction of railways, the passage over the Simplon was a favorite among the exits and entrances of Italy. In those days an even larger number of foreigners in proportion to the whole than now learned to appreciate the exquisite little lake of Orta, with its homonymous village, loveliest among those of north Italy. The summit of the hill behind the village is crowned by a grove of great trees that throw a checkered shade upon the turf beneath, and scattered here and there are about twenty chapels of late Renaissance architecture, many of them charming, and each one consecrated to a representation of some scene in the life of St. Francis of Assisi in colored terracotta statues of life size. These are set in a painted architecture or landscape. Unfortunately, the execution is not at the level of the intention; the groups are, almost without exception, tame and wax-figury. It is because the spot is so lovely, the chapels so pretty, and the views of lake and mountain of such beauty, that the visitor lingers and returns with pleasure.

No one need wonder, then, that the impression gained at Orta should affect the visitor's judgment in the other and less known places. "Chapels with colored statues in them like those of Orta." And this would be fairly true of one of the other sanctuaries, the Sacro Monte of Varese. Statues and painting are both largely by the same artists who worked at Orta, all seventeenth-century men. It there be a difference in their achievement, it is that at Orta the groups are academically tame and feeble, while at Varese they are more theatrical and violent. At the latter place the subject is the Mysteries of the Rosary, distributed through fourteen chapels bordering a steep ascent, whence is obtained a superb view over the lake country set in mountains towards the north, and southward over the plains of Lombardy and Piedmont. The spot is charming, and, if for no other reason, at least you are grateful to the chapels for having brought you there. However, one who has observed the groups more nearly than I can pretend to, declares that, even amid the pompous feebleness, there are now and again certain figures that stand out from among their fellows, as, often, a star actor from the troupe by whom he is surrounded.

But go to Varallo in the beautiful valley of the Sesia, where is the most important of these sanctuaries, and you may get to see that the colored statues were sometimes the work of artists whom it is no exaggeration to call great. One might go to Varallo for the landscapes alone, or for the picturesqueness and local color, which have their own peculiar place in the infinite variety of Italy, or for the fresh air and the summer resorts of Monte Rosa. One might even make of the way a Bacchic pilgrimage for wines unknown to the general traveller, or even to most Italians, and which make one wonder why the hotel-keepers never give anything like that to drink. I will say nothing of the vintages of Grignolino and Gattinara, for their names, if not their virtues, are known; but, if opportunity serve, I would recommend to the knowing to try Ghemme and Lessona and Sizzano, and then to venture upon others that I pass over in silence. He may enrich his experience and at the same time his store of pleasant memories; for Italy, thanks to the treadmill round that the ordinary tourist makes in it, is a land flowing with nameless nectars that minister an innocent gladness to those who succeed in finding them out. Finally, at Varallo, aside from the Sacro Monte, there are in and about the place treasures of art for the lovers of the unhackneyed. I mention one, at least, of these, as your Baedeker would leave you in ignorance of it and it is not one of the things to be neglected. At Quarona, an hour's walk from Varallo, there is in the village church an altarpiece, Madonna and child, attributed to Gaudenzio Ferrari, that would pay you for going five times as far.

But we must not forget that we have come to Varallo for the Sacro Monte, the precipitous height that towers above the town. On the top is a "New Jerusalem," said to have been founded toward the end of the fifteenth century in imitation of the sacred places of the elder Jerusalem. It has grown beyond the original intention, and is now occupied by some fifty chapels, all of them, with the exception of one devoted to a representation of the Temptation in the Garden of Eden, filled with scenes relating to the life and death of Jesus Christ. At the foot of the shaded road that mounts from the town to the summit is the church of Santa Maria delle Grazie, which may well occupy an hour either before or after the ascent. Between the nave and the choir is a screen that mounts to the roof, after the fashion of that in Santa Maria degli Angioli at Lugano, and, like that, covered with magnificent frescoes. These two screens—sole examples of their kind, so far as I now remember—are relatively examples of the two masters whom, in this region, one is so often tempted to compare, Luini and Gaudenzio Ferrari, the former at Lugano, the latter here at Varallo. The screen is divided into twenty-one compartments filled with scenes from the life of our Lord; the central one, the Crucifixion, being equal in space to four of the others. The work is all of one period, 1513, and is in excellent preservation. It has the peculiarities of Ferrari's earlier manner, the use of gold and of actual relief in many of the accessories (horse-trappings, armor, haloes, etc.—as also in Pinturicchio's frescoes in the Borgia rooms at the Vatican), the extremely long fingers on most of the hands, etc.; but at the same time it displays the artist's feeling for beauty and sincere religious sentiment in all their force, and is perhaps more completely representative of his genius than any other single work of his. In two of the chapels on the mountain above are frescoes of his maturity,

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but they are badly damaged, fragments and shadows of what they were. It may be remarked that in some of the mountain valleys about Varallo one meets occasionally beautiful faces of the types portrayed by Ferrari, just as one frequently meets the women of Luini in the streets of Milan.

At first sight the figures in the chapels on the mountain are disappointing. Not only has one to combat one's contempt for painted figures and one's reminiscences of wax-figure shows, but one finds a good deal at this particular show in shabby condition. The statues are frequently in a sad state of dilapidation, or they have been dressed in tawdry finery, or suffer from want of repainting or from too much of it, or have wigs of tow or horse-hair stuck on to their native baldness; but, if one be not discouraged by the first hasty glance, the seriousness, the force, the truth of many of the figures soon make themselves felt, and gradually comes a conviction that some of these statues are works of genius. Some of the groups are seen to be full of life, and even the painted backgrounds are often of great beauty. In two cases, that of the chapel of the Crucifixion, and especially in that of the Visit of the Magi, the frescoes were among the strongest and most beautiful efforts of Gaudenzio Ferrari at his full maturity. What remains of them justifies this assertion. In the former of the two chapels, the statues also are supposed to be by him. Of course, this is no place for an enumeration of the subjects and artists of the five and forty chapels. Many of the groups in them do not rise above the wax-work-show level; many of them are barely commonplace; but, aside from Gaudenzio Ferrari, there are two sculptors, at least, who stand out so from their fellows as to command our special attention.

One is struck at finding the greater part of the better groups ascribed to one man, Giovanni D'Enrico, who worked here for many years previous to 1645. Among the groups that bear his name are the Ecce Homo, Christ before Caiaphas, Christ before Herod, Christ condemned to death, Pilate washing his hands, and, finest of all, Christ being nailed to the cross. These are more than sufficient to put the great talent of the author beyond doubt, though on examination many of the figures are found to be inferior to the better ones, and you are glad of the explanation that D'Enrico, like Rubens, had the habit of leaving a great deal of his glory to be won by his pupils. Figures like that of Caiaphas, and some of those in the Nailing to the Cross and Ecce Homo chapels, make one regret that he was not content to produce less and do his work by himself.

But a far greater man than Giovanni D'Enrico has given here the measure of his power. In the Eve of the first chapel, in that of the Temptation in the Wilderness, of the first Vision of St. Joseph, and in the populous one of the Journey to Calvary, one is surprised by figures of a force and vitality that, through all the disguises and injuries of time, are clearly revealed as masterworks. On inquiry, they prove to be by a man of Flemish origin, Tabaquet, known in Italy as Tabachetti, who came here toward the end of the sixteenth century. The histories of art, not to be wanting to their fatal inadequacy, make little or no mention of Tabachetti, while celebrating many geniuses of not half his value. I would not go to the length of Mr. Samuel Butler, whose amusing and very clever book* ought to be in the hands of every visitor to Varallo, when he exalts Tabachetti above Michelangelo, and says that, were he given a choice whether to have created the figures in the Medici chapel or those of Tabachetti, he "would not for a moment hesitate about choosing Tabachetti's, though they drove their unhappy creator mad, which the Medicean chapel never did by Michelangelo." But, in the presence of some of Tabachetti's statues, one may share Mr. Butler's enthusiasm without repeating his language.

There are works by unknown men—the Massacre of the Innocents, for example—that will repay a good deal of study, and single figures, as that of a man tugging at a rope in the chapel of the Flagellation, or that in the chapel of the Descent from the Cross, known as Il Vecchietto, the little old man, which, if not done by Tabachetti, would prove that he had his peers among his fellow-artists. Perhaps it is more reasonable to suppose that Tabachetti himself was the unaccredited author of these marvellous statues. They are, like all the rest, of an uncompromising realism; indeed, it is hard to believe that the Vecchietto is not an unusually picturesque example of the flesh and blood of one of these mountain valleys. But the realism of Tabachetti and his fellow-artists does not content itself, *more hodierno*, with the reproduction of ugly or brutal types, though there are plenty of these, but occasionally gratifies our longing for the beautiful. Tabachetti's Eve, for example, is of a loveliness that, once seen, is not readily forgoten.

The architecture of the chapels is similar to that at Orta, and some of its combinations charming; but the buildings are so arranged that there is scarcely a peep out over the surrounding landscape, and, notwithstanding the abundance of great trees on the mountain, there is little, comparatively, of the sylvan character that delights the visitor at Orta.

This group of sacred mountains includes one more, that of Crea, least known of all, but in importance second only to Varallo. It may be visited either from Serralunga or from Moncalvo, both on the line between Casale-Monferrato and Asti. There is an inn among the buildings on the summit, but I know nothing of it. The probabilities are that, unless the visitor happens to be a guest in one of the castles that crown nearly all the innumerable hill-tops of the region, he will have to content himself with a single brief inspection of the treasures of the Sacro Monte. I have left myself so little space that I can indicate but three or four of these. In the main church, besides a very fine altar-piece by Macrino D'Alba, there is a chapel decorated on all sides by beautiful frescoes by Spanzoti (or Spanzotti), master of Sodoma, according to some; by an unknown painter of Pavia in the employ of the Duke of Monferrato, according to others. Unfortunately, the chapel is so dark that the frescoes are usually shown by candlelight. On one occasion, when the great doors of the church were wide open, the light of the western sun streamed in towards the chapel, and I had a twilight view of them. It is a mystery how they were ever painted, and a still greater one that they should have turned out so beautiful. Among the outside chapels, incontestably the most important is the first on the way up from Serralunga. The subject is the Martyrdom of St. Eusebius, who was stoned to death in front of the fine church of St. Andrew at Vercelli. The frescoes are by Guglielmo Caccia, known as Moncalvo, a post-Gaudenzian painter, and the statues, by Tabachetti, are extremely interesting. I shall never forget the powerful figure of one of the stoners—this said without prejudice to the others.

Crea has two or three chapels filled by sculptors of to-day, and one of them, the Journey to Calvary, by Bistolfo, counts among the most noteworthy achievements of recent Italian sculpture—or rather of modelling, since the figures are in plaster of Paris. Elegance, grace, distinction, and a certain gentle pathos are the chief characteristics of the work. These are quite enough to lift it above mediocrity, or indeed above any of the ancient groups, excepting those due to the genius of Tabachetti.

It only remains to be said that the hill-top of Crea is covered with a dense wood, in which one comes upon the chapels as surprises. There are outlooks, however, and from one (where, by the way, is an astonishing representation of Paradise) the panorama spread before one is superb, extending from Monte Rosa in the west to Milan in the northeast, with Vercelli and Novara as soft dark patches in the blue haze that overhangs the valley of the Po, and to the south the range of the Ligurian Apennines. At night the electric lights of Novi may be seen on the further edge of the plain underlying these mountains. S. K.

* *Ex Voto*: An Account of the Sacro Monte or New Jerusalem at Varallo-Sesia. London: Longmans. 1890.

Correspondence.

INTRINSICATE, INTRINSECATE.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: Among the old dramatists who have this word, Shakespeare was neither the first nor the last. There exists, however, hitherto unnoticed, an earlier authority for it than any of them, namely, the translator of the Second Part of Macchiavelli's *Arte of warre:*

"The exercises of warre, seeming unto them partly not necessary, partly an *intrinsicate* matter, whiche they understande not." Peter Whitehorne, *Certaine Wayes for the ordering of Souldioures in battleray*, etc. (1562), fol. 40 r. (ed. 1573).

Intrinsicate is irreflectively derived, by Theobald, from the Latin *intrinsecus*, or else from the Italian *intrinsecarsi*, though the context, wherever he had met with the strange term, plainly indicates what it was intended to signify. Dr. Johnson, drawing his bow at a venture, and that a wild one, is of opinion that it "seems to have been ignorantly formed between *intricate* and *intrinsecal*."

How did the dramatists come by *intrinsicate?*

Improbable, with near approach to impossibility, is the supposition that any two persons, whatever their notions as to its genesis, can have brought it forward independently. Must not, then, its adoption by Shakespeare and the rest, as substitutable for *intricate*, have originated from its use seen in the quotation given above, or oc-

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curring elsewhere? This view is surely colourable, in presence of the fact that "intrinsecate matter" renders *viluppo*, "intricacy." Had he essayed to enrich our mother-tongue by adopting a full-bodied synonym of "familiar" from the Italian, Whitehorne would not have missed the mark in his neoterizing. His *intrinsicate*, a fancied improvement on *intricate*, was, pretty clearly, due to somebody's misapprehending the sense of *intrinsicato* or *intrinsecato*.

Playfully and otherwise, Shakespeare has minted a good number of barbarisms, one of which is *intrinse*. This, being in *Lear*, is earlier than the equivalent *intrinsicate* of *Antony and Cleopatra*. Both words the Rev. Professor Skeat uninquiringly identifies with *intrinsic*.

Was Dr. Johnson acquainted with any unetymological monstrosity at all matching *intrinsicate* as he was disposed to account for it? Be this as it may, we of later times are acquainted with one in Mr. and Mrs. Browning's *adaptitude*, the lady leading the way. Pity it is that eccentrics, if they will produce such deformities as this, with *electrocute, imson, oratund, phillog, utian*, and the like, should perpetrate their felonies in the eye of the public.

Though it would have been no accession to our language to Anglicize *intrinsicato* in its proper acceptation, yet, as regards another Italian vocable, *scienziato*, Dr. Whewell, if he had proposed to invest it with an English dress, would, besides avoiding a breach of analogy, have precluded copious ink-spilth. That *scientiate* was once used here is the proof:

"Such as will learne an Art or a Science, the first object that they set before them is not immediately that of the Art, or that of the Science, but an Artist, or a *Scientiate*, and that not the greatest neither. but the nearest. . . . When the Artist or *Scientiat* hath arriv'd," etc. Anon., Translation of Malvezzi's *Pourtract of the Politicke Christian Favourite* (1647), p. 100.

F. H.

MARLESFORD, ENGLAND, June 19, 1900.

Notes.

McClure, Phillips & Co. announce 'The Gavel and the Mace,' a guide to parliamentary practice by Frank W. Hackett, Assistant Secretary of the Navy; an 'Encyclopædia of Etiquette'; and 'The Trust Problem,' by Prof. Jeremiah W. Jenks of Cornell University.

Noyes, Platt & Co., Boston, give their imprint to a very tasteful little Official Catalogue of the American Fine Arts Exhibit at the current Paris Exposition. It contains the personnel of the Commission of the Department, the national juries convened on both sides of the water, biographical sketches of the American contributors, the catalogue of works, and half-tone examples of these.

'The Associate Hermits' carries on the altogether handsome uniform edition of Mr. Frank R. Stockton's ingenious fiction; and a companion volume is numbered one of "Stories," with "The Lady or the Tiger" at the fore, followed by its sequel and other short pieces (Scribners).

The Scribners have entered the lists where publishers contend for cheaper editions of Carlyle's 'French Revolution.' Theirs makes a plump octavo volume of 800 pages in fair type, and is provided with a certain number of illustrations after old prints, in rather odd selection, so far as portraits go. The index, as we remarked recently of a rival edition, is a copy, and of itself lends no distinction or special value to the reprint, as it might have done.

Mr. Moncure D. Conway's 'Thomas Paine,' to turn to a kindred work, has been done into French by Félix Rabbe (since deceased), and handsomely published by Plon-Nourrit & Cie., Paris. Mr. Conway's increasing exploitation of this theme is well known, and prepares one to learn that whoever wants his completest tale about his hero must resort to the present translation. Some excision has taken place also, however, and the French and English presentations are needed to supplement each other, even though the former be "en grande partie un ouvrage nouveau," as Mr. Conway explains in his preface. The author appropriately chooses for his frontispiece a portrait by Laurent Dabos, a painter of Toulouse.

A scholarly little book, printed very attractively in a first American (third English) edition, is W. Arnold Buffum's 'Tears of the Heliades,' an essay on amber as a gem; more particularly on Sicilian amber so used. The subject has seemingly been thoroughly ransacked on the historical side by one who is a collector as well as capable of bookish research. The agreeable chapters abound, too, in classical and vernacular poetical quotations, pretty descriptions, even romantic incident. There are one colored illustration and two photographic, besides a geological section of the Amber Coast.

'Appletons' Annual Cyclopædia' for 1899 differs in no essential feature from the long series of which it is the latest issue. It has a map of China to serve roughly for reference in the present extremity, and its three larger portraits are of the late Gen. Lawton, Paul Krüger, and President Loubet. The editor's pretension to "clearly set forth" "the causes, the processes, and the result so far as reached" of the wars in the Philippines and in South Africa is violently negatived by his account of the occupation of Manila and the subsequent outbreak of hostilities between Aguinaldo and his followers and our forces. It is not too much to call the statement on p. 695 a gross perversion of the facts. The survey of the year's literary output, American and foreign, being an uncritical listing of titles, would be more intelligibly and usefully reduced to a frank classified catalogue, so printed as to permit the eye to run over and take it in easily.

The Robert Clarke Co. of Cincinnati publish the 'Recollections of a Lifetime,' by Roeliff Brinkerhoff (8vo, pp. 448). Gen. Brinkerhoff is best known by his long devotion to prison reform and to the improvement of hospitals for the insane and idiotic. He has taken an interest also in archæology and genealogy (especially that of the Brinkerhoff family). The natural outcome of these tastes is the compilation of his own Recollections of a lifetime which has brought him in touch with interesting people and events. In very early life he was tutor in the Donelson and Jackson families in Tennessee. Returning home, he threw himself into the anti-Nebraska movement and into the new Republican party. During the civil war he was a quartermaster, having large responsibilities in depots for the purchase and distribution of supplies. He was later a revenue reformer and an independent in politics. He had personal acquaintance with many leading men in political life, and enlarged the circle to include those most prominent in the benevolent activities to which he has given his later years. The revision of his MS. for the press has been too careless, with the result that many minor errors have escaped his notice. The proof-reading is also very faulty. In paper, type, and presswork the volume is excellent, and the matter was worth greater care in the other respects mentioned.

In the fourth and last volume of 'How England Saved Europe' (Scribners), Dr. Fitchett reaches his most patriotic heights. His subject is the warfare on French soil in 1814-'15, leading up to the abdication at Fontainebleau and then to Waterloo. Chapters on St. Helena and Napoleon's historical character are also furnished. As it is Dr. Fitchett's thesis to show that England actually did save Europe from ruin, he is led to describe Bonaparte's malignity in the colors of the pit. "He scorned truth. He worshipped force. He was absolutely pitiless. He erected selfishness into a law. He counted himself apart from morality, or above it. Religion to him was a tool, and capable of being used for very irreligious ends. He poured out human blood like water. . . . He substituted 'glory' for 'duty' in human ethics. He slew his own conscience, and did much to slay the conscience of the world. Yet all this, when seen in retrospect, failed to stir him with a thrill of pity or prick him with a pang of self-blame." In a word, what Seeley is to Thiers that Dr. Fitchett is to Seeley. Every demerit of Napoleon, moreover, is turned to the glory of England. Such volumes do not contribute to the friendship of nations, but, on the other hand, we must applaud Dr. Fitchett for closing his series of red-covered and somewhat fiery volumes with a panegyric of peace.

Dr. Emmet Densmore's 'Consumption and Chronic Diseases' (New York: The Stillman Publishing Co.) shows one of the tendencies of the age to strike into paths not marked out under the authority of the schools, and as such it has its good and its objectionable sides. The writer describes vividly the remarkable results obtained in the treatment of pulmonary consumption in sanitaria where reliance is placed almost exclusively upon three influences, abundant food, rest or freedom from undue fatigue, fresh air. The book is written to demonstrate that the essentials of the treatment can be carried out at home. By "fresh air" is to be understood, however, not alone reasonable ventilation, but a life spent out of doors, or in rooms in which the windows are partly open summer and winter, day and night. By "food" is meant a quantity which will insure a rapid gain in weight, to be taken whether the patient wants it or does not. The author advocates the exclusive use of milk for this purpose, a dose being taken every forty-five minutes or so throughout the day. Valuable suggestions are made with regard to clothing, exercise, and other matters, yet they should not be adopted wholly at random. Fresh air, to be safe, should be almost continuous, and milk, as an exclusive article of diet, is certainly not without its objections, and we cannot avoid the suspicion that, when it is found so useful, it is because it shares the power that attaches to all exclusive ex-

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tremes, to secure enthusiasm and confidence which reason and reasonable methods cannot inspire. Nevertheless, the principle advocated is of high importance.

New modes of locomotion call for a new class of guide-books. Miss Katharine M. Abbott, who began by showing what trolley trips were possible and interesting on the New England coast, from and to Boston, has now undertaken the same service for the District of Columbia, and publishes, through G. P. Putnam's Sons, an illustrated pocket volume entitled 'Trolley Trips in and about Fascinating Washington.' The open electric conveyance is thus made to conduct the stranger confidently to the chief sights of a city in the shortest possible time, with a minimum of fatigue and of expense. A map makes the routes easily comprehended in advance, and is an added insurance against "getting lost."

Students of the classics, as well as those interested in the history of the woman movement, will read with satisfaction a brochure by Prof. Ivo Bruns of Kiel: 'Frauenemancipation in Athen; Ein Beitrag zur attischen Kulturgeschichte des fünften und vierten Jahrhunderts' (Kiel: Schmidt & Klaunig). The first part of the treatise is a defence of Euripides against the accusation of misogyny, which in manner recalls Lessing's 'Rettung des Horaz.' The inferences which the well-known scholar draws from the Attic writers of the fifth and fourth centuries suggest the most striking analogies between our modern woman movement and the Athenian, which reaches its climax in Plato's 'Republic.' But the philosophers of the fourth century, so the writer argues, received all the postulates regarding the condition of woman from the preceding epoch, during which public opinion was greatly agitated over the problem. This pamphlet is of "culture-historical" interest, also, as indicating a transitional stage between the use of Latin and of German in university affairs. On the title-page and the last inside page we find, in Ciceronian Latin, the announcement of, and invitation to, the celebration, in the University aula, of the Emperor's (latest) birthday, on which occasion one of the professors was to express in a *German* oration the common sentiments of deep affection—"oratione *patrio sermone* habenda communia omnium vota auspicatissima pronuntiabit."

'Das herrschende Schulsystem und die nationale Schulreform,' by Prof. E. Dahn (Kiel and Leipzig: Lipsius & Fischer), is not a well-written book, but it may serve a useful purpose as a source of information supplementary to any or all English books on education in Germany. It deals almost exclusively with secondary schools, and the author, as director of one of these, and as editor of the *Pädagogisches Archiv*, knows much about inside affairs, about the weal and woe (especially the latter) of the teachers and pupils in these institutions, that no foreign visitor can ever find out.

Asher & Co., Berlin, have recently published a volume on the German workingmen's insurance system: 'Einrichtung und Wirkung der deutschen Arbeiterversicherung.' The magnitude and success (for so much must be acknowledged even by disbelievers in this kind of State Socialism) of the organization is shown by the fact that since 1885 more than two billions of marks have been paid in indemnities to workingmen and women through this Government institution; the amounts contributed to the insurance fund by the workingmen, the employers, and the Government being, respectively, 1,164, 1,099, and 150 million marks.

Three Bulletins of the Copyright Office at Washington afford the freshest guidance to owners of literary property. No. 1 (4th ed.) gives the Copyright Law of the United States in force July, 1900; No. 2 (part ii.) gives instruction for Registration for Copyright Protection within the British Dominions; No. 2 (part iii.) contains the Rules and Forms relating to Copyright Registration in Canada, together with the Canadian Copyright Law of 1886.

A special American-South African number of *Hollandia*, "a weekly illustrated paper for the Dutch-speaking world at large," is by exception wholly in English. It is an appeal for American intervention against the operations of the game of war which the Boers initiated. It arrives when all eyes in America, as in Europe, are turned Chinaward to a much more stupendous drama, and when the Roman occupation of the late South African republics has gone so far as to put intervention out of the question. In judging whether the war is glorious or inglorious for England, some of the argumentation of *Hollandia* will have weight; but that other question, whether the Boers have the same claim on the world's sympathies as baffled invaders of British territory that they would have had if they had simply resisted within their own borders, is not to be settled by historical retrospect carried back of October 9, 1899, the date of the Boers' ultimatum.

Consular Reports for June contains a comprehensive account, with numerous statistics, of last year's Russian petroleum trade, from which it appears that though more work has been done than in 1898 and the total production has increased, by nearly five million barrels, to sixty-three millions, the results have been less satisfactory. The wells have increased in number, but the daily average output from each well has fallen from 199 to 174 barrels, and the cost of production has seriously increased. "The limit of drilling operations," it is inferred, "has probably been reached." There is also a curious report of the French system of taxation, and a short but suggestive article by our Consul-General at Berlin on Germany's food supply. He notes that the population of the empire has nearly trebled during the past century, and the agricultural products, by reason of scientific culture and freedom from the destruction and waste of local wars, have nearly quadrupled. This is offset, however, by a "vast and increasing diversion of these products to other than life-sustaining purposes in the form of food. Nearly the whole of the barley crop is malted and used for the manufacture of beer; potatoes and maize in vast quantities are devoted to the production of alcohol, and the best lands of Germany are now devoted to the culture of beet-sugar, the greater portion of which is exported." Another report calls attention to the greatly increased cost of living in Germany and the disproportionate advance in wages.

The annual report of the Woman's Education Association of Massachusetts shows a wide range of useful work, from the provision of fellowships for foreign study, the maintenance of the American Women's Table at the Zoölogical Station at Naples, and the sending of twenty-nine travelling libraries and seven picture sets to the rural towns, to the promotion of vacation schools in Boston and the labelling of the trees and shrubs in the Back Bay Fens. The special subject to which the attention of the Association has been directed during the past year has been the place of moral education. The mere acquisition of knowledge should no longer be regarded as the chief purpose of education, but "the building up of character must be part of the teaching in our schools."

Was the Epistle to the Hebrews written by a woman? is the novel question raised by the brilliant church historian of the Berlin University, Professor Harnack, to which he gives the equally surprising answer that in all probability this is the case. His discussion of this problem, which constitutes the *pièce de résistance* in the first issue of the new *Zeitschrift für neutestamentliche Wissenschaft*, is a skilful combination of the condition of affairs as presupposed by this anonymous letter, with what we know of the character and history of the noteworthy couple, Aquila and Priscilla. He concludes that this letter is the product of their pen; the wife in all probability, chiefly on account of the total suppression of the author's name by even the earliest literature, having been the chief factor in the composition. Harnack does not pretend to have discovered any data in the literature of the Apostolic period that would directly or indirectly connect the name of Priscilla with the authorship of Hebrews. His argumentation is entirely along the line of inner literary and historical criticism, and is a model specimen of this kind of analytic and constructive research. The author frankly heads his article "Probabilia."

—The sixth volume of the 'Life and Correspondence of Rufus King' (Putnam) completes the work, and shows how active King was in the last eleven years of his life. The Federal party had committed suicide, as Gore said, and Monroe in the Presidential chair gave an administration that was commonplace, and more remarkable for the intrigues of members of his Cabinet for the succession than for its own merits and statesmanship. "The election of a Pope is purity, simplicity, and certainty when compared with the system of electing a President by a caucus. The conclave of Cardinals are closed, and soon walled up, while the caucus of Congress to elect a President is composed of members who separately confer with whom they please, and for one or two years carry on the intrigue to choose a President." So King wrote in 1823, when four candidates were in the field. He had been reëlected to the Senate in 1820 under conditions very flattering to himself, and still exercised much influence by his moderation, wide knowledge, and experience. In the muddy politics of New York he was active, favoring a convention to revise the Constitution, and much opposed to the Clinton faction. It is extraordinary to find him seriously recommending Van Buren for a position on the bench of the Supreme Court, and he does not seem to have understood that smooth and dexterous political manager. As a Federalist, he disliked John Quincy Adams; and when Monroe spoke slightingly of the Federalists, a coolness arose between King and the President.

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—In domestic affairs much of importance was done. On the Missouri question King took a leading part, and he argued against slavery on the highest ground, that man could not enslave man. He did not believe, however, that the institution could be touched by Congress in States where it already existed. The passage of the compromise was fought ably, and, when accomplished, was looked upon as a defeat absolute and complete. "The pretended concession, for it is revocable at pleasure, is itself of no value, and has been provided as an apology to the members of the free States who have assisted in putting us under a Government of the privileged order of men who are henceforth to be and for ever to remain our masters." It was King who framed the Navigation Act of 1818, but the conditions of American commerce then seemed to justify such a law. These conditions have long since passed away, and the law should have been repealed. At the close of his term as Senator, when he was in his seventieth year, he was offered and accepted the English mission, but held it only for a year. In this last volume will be found an abundance of new and interesting materials on State and national issues and politics. The editing has been judicious, although complaint might be made of the long extracts from the annals of Congress and Adams's Diary, necessarily occupying space which could be filled with original matter. The "memoranda" on p. 427 should have been dated 1820, not 1821.

—The inaugural address of Professor Macdonald of the Hartford Theological Seminary has been reprinted under the title of 'Muslim Jurisprudence.' Since our advance into the Sulu archipelago, the difficult subject to which this pamphlet introduces us can no longer be regarded as purely academic. An original analysis is here given of the sources of Muslim Law, and a sketch of the four famous schools by which that law has been expounded and developed. The treatment is so lucid and so far from dry that he who runs, and even he who skips, may not only read, but be interested. At the base of these legal systems lies, first, what we may term Statute Law, namely, the revelations promulgated by Muhammad and embodied in the Qur'an; second, what may be called Case Law, consisting of precedents derived from Muhammad's usage as preserved by history or tradition. Upon that foundation, by means of what Austin calls "illations and deductions," and by skilfully added theories of their own, the ingenuity of countless generations of jurists has built up these elaborate structures. The dictum of Sir Henry Maine, that all law has been developed, first through legal fiction, next through equity, and lastly by legislation, is true only in part as applied to these systems; for legislation in the ordinary sense they have never known. The spectacle of a law expanded and modified by text-writers for more than a thousand years, yet not amenable to the will of any sovereign or any legislative body, is indeed calculated to astonish the Western mind. How then, we ask, has this law been amended so as to deal with the changing conditions of the vast Muslim world?

—That is the question answered by this essay. Each of the great jurists devised some progressive principle—which we may roughly denote by that "slippery expression" Equity—wherewith to override or mitigate the rigors of the older law. In the school of Abu Hanifa this equity was based on Preference—*i. e.*, the jurist's choice of what was fair and just. The equity of Malik was founded on what we should now call Public Policy—*i. e.*, the judge's view of what was to the public advantage. In the hands of ash-Shafi'i the remedial principle took the form of upholding rules settled by Agreement—*i. e.*, such as had been accepted by a consensus of Muslim opinion. The last principle was the most fruitful of the three. "The hope for the future lay, and lies, in the principle of the Agreement." Professor Macdonald points out that the Muslim jurists learnt their methods of legal interpretation from those opinions or general statements laid down by the Roman *jurisprudentes*, and of which Justinian's Digest so largely consists. The analogies are many and striking. So, also, the Muslim principle of Agreement reminds one of the rescript of Hadrian, which ordained that, if the opinions of the licensed *prudentes* all agreed, such common opinion had the force of statute; but, if they disagreed, the judge might follow which he chose. We trust that the author may some day expand this valuable essay, since shortness is its only shortcoming. The difficult task of producing compactness without density has been admirably performed.

—All the manifestations of State medicine have a common motive, the prevention of disease. It is near the root in principle, although late in development, to engage that the children assembled in schools be neither damaged nor put in risk thereby. But whether caused by the schools, or merely noted therein, it appears that "observation and special research show that a considerable percentage of the children in schools are in such a condition of ill-health that their physical development is vastly more in need of special attention than their intellectual development." There do not seem to be statistics to differentiate the conditions caused by improper furniture, overcrowding, poor construction, unreasonable hours, etc., due to the school as such, from those connected with the children as independent causes. But the large public schools of our cities may be choked with opportunities for the spread of the ordinarily recognized contagious diseases, and with continuing physical influences that depress susceptible youth. The latter are an atmosphere saturated with organic débris and with the general emanations from the body that create crowd-poisoning. These are independent of the physical evils generated in or fostered by the imperfect bodies in which so many of our souls abide. No school officer whose ordinary duty is instruction, however well trained, can do more than observe the concrete consequence. He may notice that a child is obviously ill or manifestly defective. His duties to the whole carry him beyond those that are sick. As a teacher he is charged with teaching, not with house-building, nor body-building, nor with the repair of either. There should, it is reasoned, be a responsible physical director, competent to detect, and possessing authority to remove, the cause of offence. To follow this to its conclusion involves a discussion as to the limits within which, if at all, the State should compel public or other medical service to be invoked, beyond merely affording opportunity for its voluntary use. If vaccination, as it certainly should be, is compulsory, and diphtheria must be isolated, must incipient consumption be segregated, and should the State destroy the mosquito host of the malarial parasite as it does the gypsy-moth and the scale-insect? These remarks are based upon an interesting but incompressible paper on "Health Inspection in Schools" by Prof. William H. Burnham of Clark University in the *Pedagogical Seminary* for April last.

—Perhaps no small fact is more pregnant with the character of our anæsthetic age than the decline in the popularity of the celebrated treatise of Boethius. It is not to philosophy that people who fancy themselves terribly stricken nowadays go for consolation. They more often, whether rich or poor, betake themselves to travel. They cannot any longer understand how such indisputable woe as that of the author of the 'De Consolatione Philosophiæ' could have the heart for such an artificial style of composition. The reason is, that the Gorgon terrors of adversity are no longer remembered. They are among those picturesque features of the good old times which the prosaic nineteenth century has expunged, except from seats of war. Nevertheless, we have to record the appearance of the third English edition of the 'De Consolatione' within as many years, and that without counting Middle-English or Anglo-Saxon recensions. Dr. Walter John Sedgefield, editor of King Alfred's version for the Clarendon Press, has now brought out, through the same press (New York: Henry Frowde), a translation into modern English. Nobody would seek acquaintance with the work itself in this volume. On the contrary, its interest lies precisely in its great departures from the original—the ruthless excision of many of its fine passages, which marks King Alfred as a regular blue-pencil editor, and the still more remarkable and numerous insertions, which certainly throw a great deal of curious light upon the character of the English hero. Dr. Sedgefield has provided the volume with an entertaining introduction of over forty pages, which, after dealing with Boethius and with Alfred, branches off upon the subject of the previous English versions of the book. It gives specimens of most of them which are decidedly curious, and are doubtless intended to be reprints literatim, which unfortunately they are not—quite. There are brief but sufficient notes, and an alphabetical index. The volume is even prettier than James's edition of 1897. Neither is equal to Lord Preston's of 1695, which, if one likes the grandiloquence of that generation, is the most agreeable English presentation of a book that affords food for various reflections.

—The Clarendon Press edition of Burnet's 'History of My Own Time,' issued under the care of Dr. Osmund Airy (New York: Henry Frowde), is already known through the excellent first volume, which brought the reign of Charles II. down to 1673. The second volume, which now appears after an interval of three years, carries on the Bishop's narrative to the accession of James II., and finishes one stage of the undertaking. For the convenience of those who wish to buy only this section of the work, a full analytical index is provided of the part that ends with the death of Charles. As a piece of

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printing, the edition is very beautiful. Dr. Airy's comments are learned and careful. The need of good notes is especially great in the case of a writer like Burnet, who entered into political life and had strong prepossessions about persons. The notes are of two classes: the first deals with the state of the MS., and the second contains matter of elucidation. Burnet made a considerable number of changes in language, etc., when he revised his composition, and his manner of work is at least partly reflected in the textual notes. For historical side-lights and corrections Dr. Airy has used not only the State papers, memoirs, and other writers contemporary with Burnet, but the most recently published monographs. Here is an example of the rapidity with which material accumulates. Dr. Airy states that "since the whole of the notes were in type, the Montagu papers have been edited by the Historical Manuscripts Commission, and that Miss Foxcroft has published her laborious and very exhaustive work upon Halifax. I name only two out of many fresh sources of information which have seen the light during the progress of the book through the press." A glance at the note (p. 20) on the marriage of the Duke of York with Maria D'Este will show the reader what pains Dr. Airy has bestowed upon his task. Here and at numerous other points he displays full command of recent Continental studies in the field which Burnet traverses. It is not likely that the Bishop of Sarum will require another editor in our day.

LANG'S HISTORY OF SCOTLAND.

A History of Scotland from the Roman Occupation. By Andrew Lang. In two volumes. Vol. I. With a frontispiece. Dodd, Mead & Co. 1900.

A good history of Scotland has for some time been needed. Tytler's, published more than sixty years ago, has been long out of date, and although it is a creditable piece of work, written with judgment and fairness, it is deficient in force and pictorial skill. John Hill Burton's book, now some thirty years old, marked an advance, and showed a considerable mastery of the post-mediæval sources. But the style and manner were not quite equal to the theme, nor were the salient features of the historical development of the nation brought out with adequate breadth and clearness of view. Mr. E. W. Robertson and Mr. W. F. Skene did much for the very obscure early period, of which they possessed an altogether exceptional knowledge, and have rendered the task of their successors much easier. More recently Dr. Hume Brown has written an excellent book coming down to the accession of Queen Mary. But the field was still open for a comprehensive treatment of the whole subject which should be on the one hand thoroughly critical as regards the earlier days of obscurity, and on the other hand broad and impartial as regards that period, covering the sixteenth and seventeenth centuries, in which Scotland plays a considerable part in general European history, and which has given rise to so many passionate controversies involved not only with religious feeling, but with predilections for or aversions to figures like those of Queen Mary and John Knox, the later Stuart Kings and the Covenanters—dramatic figures, who excited a sympathy in their own time which has not died out of the Scottish mind.

Does Mr. Lang's book promise to fill the void and take rank as likely to be, for some time to come, the standard book on Scottish history? One can speak but tentatively, for we have before us only the first volume, which carries the story down from the beginning of things to the early days of the Reformation, when the murder of Cardinal Beaton in 1546 opened the long religious conflict which virtually ended with the battle of Killiecrankie in 1689. Mr. Lang has many qualifications for his enterprise. He is, to begin with, a Scot, yet a Scot who has lived long enough outside Scotland to have got rid of the narrower forms of Scottish patriotism. He is a skilful and practised writer, with much grace of style, though, as an acute critic has remarked, his sentences are better than his paragraphs. He is fortunate in possessing a strong taste for archæology and a complete mastery of folk-lore, gifts very helpful in dealing with the obscure early periods. He is industrious, generally accurate, and entirely abreast of the modern methods of historical criticism. With these gifts, and having evidently spent time and pains upon the historical sources, it was to be expected that he should produce a book of real merit. This he has done. This history promises, if it goes on as it has begun, to be on the whole the best account of Scottish affairs that has yet appeared. It honestly grapples with, if it does not always solve, the problems that are due to the deplorable paucity and brevity of the authorities for nearly all the earlier, and parts even of the later, periods. It shows an interest in the Celtic as well as the Angle or Saxon part of the Scottish nation which has been wanting in some Scotch historians, and it fairly assigns to each element its share in the building up of a Scottish people out of very diverse races. It does justice, but not more than justice, to the two national heroes of the war of independence, without attempting to decry the merits or to deny the case, such as it was, of their English antagonists. It is written with spirit throughout; wit is not wanting; and some of the descriptive passages, such as that of the fight of Flodden Field, are full of color and power, while the chapters on economic, social, and constitutional matters show real insight and grasp. They prove that though Mr. Lang may have become best known as a littérateur, he has the capacities of an historian.

The only defects which it seems necessary to note are the habit into which he sometimes falls, though it is one which a diligent student of Homer might have been expected to avoid, of occasionally telling a story by allusion rather than in a direct, straightforward way, and the tendency to let the broad results of a series or group of events become obscured by the multiplicity of details. Hs is so conscientious in giving the details, often in themselves tedious or perplexing, of a string of quarrels or intrigues, that we see only the details, and fail to catch a broad general impression of the trend of things, and the general result that emerged. This is especially the case in the two very tangled reigns of David the Second and James the Fifth, when the perfidies and tergiversations of the Scottish nobles attained their highly repellent maximum. More selfish or more treacherous leaders no country ever had; and Mr. Lang is not too strong in his denunciations of their conduct. It is certainly difficult to convey a clear impression of the main stream of events in such a period; yet we feel that more might have been achieved in this way than the book achieves. There is also another danger which Mr. Lang has to avoid. He evidently desires to do justice all around, and is (on the whole) commendably free from partisanship; but in his references to the Scottish reformers of the sixteenth century, and in particular to John Knox, there is a note of acridity, not so much in the substance of what is said as in the manner of saying it, which will expose him to the suspicion of partisan feeling. It is natural that the violence of the contemporary assailants of the old Church, and the unfairness of some of its most recent enemies, should drive him the other way. He is, for instance, well justified in his exposure of Mr. Froude's constant misrepresentations. That best known of recent British writers on the Reformation period might almost seem to have been born with a natural aversion to truth, an aversion sedulously cultivated during a long literary career. But the reign of Queen Mary, with which the second volume of this History will deal, has been a field for such embittered controversy that any one who touches it had better avoid the kind of tone which characterizes Mr. Lang's anticipatory references, in various parts of the first volume, to the Presbyterian reformers of the sixteenth century. Such faults as they committed can be just as effectively set forth and reprobated in a less biting and provocative fashion than that which Mr. Lang employs.

There is, in our author's treatment of his subject, perhaps not quite enough reference to the contemporary history of the rest of Europe, though it is no doubt true that down till the reign of James the Fourth Scotland stood rather out of the general stream of that history, and had few international relations except with France. There is also less use made than might have been expected of the physical structure of Scotland as a determining factor in the growth of the nation, and in those wars, foreign or intestine, which fill so large a part of her annals. There are some instances of carelessness, such as "Pont de Garde" for "Pont du Gard," "Egil Skallagrim," for "Egil, son of Skallagrim." But we forbear to dwell on such omissions or these small inaccuracies lest we should appear to disparage what is, take it all in all, a valuable and interesting piece of work, which throws much new light upon its subject, and contains many fine and striking passages.

No country in Europe has had a more romantic history than Scotland. No country has, in proportion to its population, produced a greater number of remarkable men, or contributed more to the general progress of letters, science, and abstract thought in the modern world. Yet no country of Western or Central Europe was, during the Middle Ages, more backward in what is called civilization. Scotland stood at the beginning of the sixteenth century much where England and France had stood at the beginning of the thirteenth. She was a prey to frightful disorders. The Celtic Highlands were, and remained for two centuries longer, under their primitive clan-system. The lowlands were hardly in better case, so far as

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law and order was concerned, for the nobles carried on almost incessant wars with one another or against the King. It was not till near the middle of the sixteenth century that James the Fifth created a regular system of central judicature, such as had been created for England by Henry the Second nearly 400 years before. The lines of the political Constitution were still unsettled, if indeed one can talk of a political constitution where war and violence were the rule. The people were poor and rude, speaking a form of English very unlike that of their Southern neighbors, and possessing few of the comforts, scarcely any of the luxuries of life. No doubt the nation already abounded with literary talent, and had begun to produce poets of distinction. But it was the struggles of the Reformation that were to give a definite form to that peculiar character by which it has asserted itself in the modern world, and retains, even after two centuries of union with its immensely larger and wealthier partner of the South, so much that is distinctive, so much that is interesting to the visitor from abroad. Already the long resistance to England from the days of Wallace downwards had braced up the spirit of the people, and united, all over the Lowlands, the dissimilar Celtic and Saxon elements into one nation. The long strife with Rome and Episcopacy, which filled the reigns of the last four Stuarts, was to complete the work. We trust that before many months Mr. Lang will give us his narrative of this period, which will test his powers even more fully than the difficult task which he has now accomplished of describing the birth and youth of the Scottish people.

Four Months Besieged: The Story of Ladysmith. By H. H. S. Pearse, the *Daily News* (London) Special Correspondent. With maps, and illustrations from sketches and photographs by the Author. The Macmillan Co. Crown 8vo, pp. xiv, 244.

This volume sustains the well-established reputation of the war correspondence of the *Daily News*, though it is not a compilation of letters published in that journal. Mr. Pearse, the special correspondent, kept careful current notes of events during the siege of Ladysmith, and wrote letters which miscarried, were suppressed by the censorship, or were belated, so that a valuable fund of original matter is here edited from his copies. He is a veteran in years as well as in service, who had two sons serving in the volunteers of General Buller's column. The father in the beleaguered town and the sons fighting with the relieving army lend a romantic interest to the story. The tone of experienced judgment in the book is warranted by the age and preparation of the writer, and quickly wins our confidence.

The little town of Ladysmith was a natural growth in the progress of South African colonization. It was the trading centre for the colonists of North Natal, where the road from Durban, the principal port on the Indian Ocean, to Johannesburg and Pretoria, approaches the Drachensberg range and throws off a westward branch towards Kroonstad and the centre of the Orange Free State. In such a broken country the watercourses are the natural lines of travel, and their valleys the desirable regions for settlement. The roads, therefore, follow the streams, and at the heads of the valleys cut by their erosion are found the passes in the mountains. Ladysmith lies in a fork of the Klip River, a tributary of the Tugela, and the branches of the Klip mark the north and west roads over the mountains. When the railroad was built, it naturally followed the easy grades of the wagon road, and Ladysmith was also at its junction. Thus the town became the base for a couple of military posts near the mountain passes; stores and munitions of war accumulated, its garrison was large, and it was regarded by Natal colonists as their protection from northern invasion.

This would have been true enough in a war of moderate proportions; but when the Transvaal and the Orange Free State united in a Landsturm against the British States, the proportions were not moderate. England needed time to collect a large army in South Africa, and the Boers did not mean to give it to her. They declared war in the hope of capturing all the British forces in South Africa before the large army could arrive. They organized two columns of invasion, one to operate against Natal on the east, the other against Cape Colony on the west. As they lived on horseback, they were an army of mounted riflemen with a small corps of well-trained artillery. But their two columns must operate independently, some four hundred miles apart. The circumstances indicated the true strategy for the British to be a stubborn resistance on one line by a comparatively small but active force, and a concentration on the other of the bulk of their army to crush the enemy—in short, to follow the plan which Lord Roberts adopted when he reached the theatre of war. This implies the probability that the weaker column may be forced back, and the region which suffers from this will cry out. Such discontent may become politically dangerous, and it is a question of statesmanship rather than of military art to decide between risks at such a juncture. It appears that the political officers of the Natal colony thought it imperative to hold Ladysmith, and the generals on the ground, White and Symons, either agreed with this or yielded their military judgment to the political one. Symons was killed in the first engagement, and White was surrounded at Ladysmith by the end of October.

Mr. Pearse was evidently of the opinion, at the time, that it was possible for Gen. White greatly to have delayed the investment and prolonged his control of the railway, by a more vigorous use of his forces. Ladysmith is not a fortress; it is only a position—an open village with considerable camps among the hills around it. The situation had a resemblance to that of Atlanta in our civil war. The attacking army was not big enough to march around that city at once, and the defenders, by extending their own works by the flank, delayed and prevented the complete investment, covered the railway behind them, and, after a month, slipped away to a new position in the rear. Could not Gen. White have done this at Ladysmith? If he had preserved his communications for even half a month, Buller would have joined him with the relieving column, making the army largely superior to the Boers. Time was evidently the essence of the problem, for the Boers do not seem to have greatly outnumbered White. A very vigorous defensive was in order, not by sending detachments out to attack the enemy by way of sortie, but by occupying connected positions in front of the town and making the Boers attack.

Once the place was invested, the patient stubbornness of defence is very warmly, but none too warmly, praised by Mr. Pearse. There was no thought of surrender, there was invincible determination not to yield a foot; there were several brilliant night attacks on the Boers' big guns, permanently disabling two of them. The growing scarcity of food was willingly borne, as was the disease which followed on the heels of partial starvation. The townspeople were hardly less brave than the soldiers. The exposure and the want were shared by both. Women and children became accustomed to the ordinary fire of the great guns, and went about their houses and through the streets in apparent indifference to the danger, seeking bombproof shelter only when the cannonade was most rapid and continuous.

The story of four months of this wearing and nerve-depressing life under fire is told in Mr. Pearse's journal, with circumstantial details which make the experience live before us. At nightfall on the last day of February, Buller's advance-guard of cavalry dashes into the town, and their welcome by soldiers and citizens, with cheers and with weeping, is made half hysterical by the reaction from the long nervous tension, the lack of food, and the widespread influence of fever. The deaths in battle and from wounds had not been very numerous; indeed, one of the curious lessons of the siege is the wonderful range and accuracy of aim of rifled cannon throwing hundredweight shells four or five miles, and the merely trifling mischief they do when reasonable precautions are taken not to expose men in masses or in large visible groups. The moral effects of ceaseless watching, constant danger, and unwholesome conditions would seem to be more destructive than the most active field fighting.

Mr. Pearse's excellent photographs form a connected panorama of the whole circuit of the town. The important features of the landscape are noted, and the pictures thus become a great help to the study of the situation.

Early Connecticut Houses: An Historical and Architectural Study. By Norman M. Isham, A.M., Architect, and Albert F. Brown, Architect. Providence, R. I.: The Preston & Rounds Co. 1900.

Four years ago there was reviewed in these columns the book entitled 'Early Rhode Island Houses,' the work of the same authors as the present one, which is in size and style nearly a sister book, but a little larger; and although there are minor differences in the way in which the subject is presented, they hardly call for detailed comment. There is again a completeness of record, a successful attempt to tell the whole story as far as it is important it should be told, upon which it is hard to comment in terms too favorable. Five seventeenth-century houses in Farmington, three in Hartford, one in Windsor, one in Berlin, and one in South Glastonbury are treated in chapters ii. and iii. The houses of the same epoch in "the New Haven colony" are two in New Haven, two in Branford, one in Guilford, one in Milford, and one in Southold; and these are treated in chapters v. and vi. Then there is a

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third geographical division of the subject, and it appears in chapter viii. that there is at least one seventeenth-century house in New London. The houses of the eighteenth century, not more numerous, are treated in chapters iv., vii., and viii. Each house is presented in a small, carefully made drawing, mainly in outline, without the slightest attempt at artistic effect; and the more artistic on that account, as revealing the work of architectural art without the interference of the draughtsman's fancies. It is clear that these little drawings of effect (stated to have been made with the aid of photographs) and the plans and explanatory sections are as trustworthy as it is possible to make drawings of the kind. Even if in any one case it should appear that something conjectural has been assumed rather too boldly, or that some indication has been misunderstood, the book would still be accurate and worthy of confidence far beyond the wont of archæological research.

As for the help which the authors have here given to the architectural student, the value of that depends so very largely upon the student himself, and his habits and bringing-up, that nothing absolute can be said of it. Fifteen years ago, when that interesting renascence in American frame houses was in its full glory, and when the clapboarded and shingled dwelling was the study and the delight of some of the most able and painstaking of our architects, these books would have been invaluable. With us in America, everything architectural goes by fashions, as offensively as does female costume, and at present the surface indications are that no one cares any longer for the naturally developed American wooden house. Without being sanguine, however, it may be assumed that the disappearance of interest in that single natural piece of American artistic evolution is not as complete as one feels or says in his despair; and so, as we recommended the book of four years ago, we recommend this one now to every person who cares about genuine tradition in fine art. And let us remember that tradition is the life and soul of fine art. No less an authority than John La Farge, and in no less careful writing than his 'Letters from Japan,' has told us that—and in good time, for there were critics who began to doubt whether tradition, which had managed to let itself be forgotten, could be of much avail. The tradition is as good as ever, and without it there is no safety. It is the restless and impatient spirit of the time, which, beginning with 1830, has created the art of autovivisection, and thereby replaced the somewhat nobler art of creation.

In the notice of the 'Rhode Island Houses,' attention was called to the drawings of the details of framing in solid timber, showing the systems of shaping uprights and horizontals, and of applying to these such simple decoration as notchings and stop-chamfers could supply. It was pointed out that, as it was stated in the authors' text, so was it evident from their drawings, that the earlier work of the New England carpenters was as strictly traditional, and that in the best sense—as completely Elizabethan or at least Jacobean in its significance—as if the workmen had never left the island of Great Britain. The same thing has to be said about these detail drawings from the Connecticut villages; and in this instance, at least, the authors have given to the reader for his satisfaction, and that he may himself use comparisons which will not be odious, drawings from such venerable English houses as Stokesay Gate House and Moreton Old Hall, and from half a dozen Jacobean houses besides. In connection with this the reader might study the interesting note on page 236, which consists chiefly of a letter from the author of the recent admirable 'History of Renaissance Architecture in England,' Reginald Blomfield.

If we could have another revival of interest in the native American wood-framed houses, perhaps the revivalists might be led to study solid timber a little more carefully. The carpenter of the present age is supposed to abhor solid timber. It is a tradition thirty years old that the house carpenter thinks himself above it, and jobs out all the handling of heavy sticks to the framer; but the framer has no idea of cutting, shaping, trimming, chamfering, treating architecturally the scantling which he tosses about. He looks upon that as joists, studs, and girders, and knows no architectural drawings but small-scale framing plans. Therefore, it will require some little patience and a great deal of enthusiasm on the part of the designer to get his solid woodwork properly done; but it is so well worth doing, and the result would be so delightful to everybody who cares for architecture, that the hope cannot quite die in the mind of the enthusiast. If the reader frequents exhibits of architectural drawings, or even if he takes one or another of our periodicals devoted to that subject, he will remember the long array of designs based upon English half-timbered country houses, and he will remember that it is often pointed out by contemporary writers on the subject that these modern buildings are nearly always fakes, nearly always mere simulacra of timber frame construction. Nearly always are they simply wooden houses of the common type, covered with smooth boarding and then "adorned" by a copy in thin boards of the skeleton of timber which the old English house displays. Now, it cannot be supposed that any architect who has designed such a thing approves of it or likes to be reminded of what he has been doing. One who has such an artistic conscience as that which we have here supposed common to the profession, would be glad of the chance, it is to be presumed, to do the thing in reality.

Life Beyond Death. By Minot J. Savage, D.D. (Harvard). G. P. Putnam's Sons. 1899.

Dr. Savage's old-fashioned title-page gives ample intimation of the contents and purpose of his book: "A Review of the world's beliefs on the subject [of Life Beyond Death], a consideration of present conditions of thought and feeling, leading to the question as to whether it can be demonstrated as a fact; to which is added an appendix containing some hints as to personal experiences and opinions." It is easy to understand the popular impression made by Dr. Savage as one reads these pages. They are singularly persuasive in their manner. One text might have answered for the whole collection: "Come and let us reason together." At every stage we have the effect of a man thinking *with* his hearers and not *for* them. One cannot but admire the daring of the preacher venturing to treat such subjects with no manuscript before him, while at the same time the disadvantages of such a method appear from time to time in forms of expression which leave something to desire, as being loosely framed or defective in some sort.

The dedication is a letter to Philip Henry Savage, Dr. Savage's son, the promising poet and librarian who was cut off untimely June 4, 1899. It is almost too tender for the public eye, but it gives a note of deeper and more touching significance to those portions of the book which deal with Dr. Savage's personal confidence in the spiritualistic argument for a future life. That his preface is concerned with this, and his appendix, and the last four chapters of the book, makes it plain that we are to look to this matter for the book's dominant inspiration. Those chapters which treat historically the beliefs of mankind touching a future life are necessarily too brief for any fulness of detail. It is a virtue of the first chapter, "Primitive Ideas," that it reflects the uncertainty of investigation in this quarter hitherto. Dr. Savage makes no concealment of the fact that a future life was generally, in the early stages of belief, something dreaded rather than something desired. Where he is dealing with the Old Testament teaching, he finds the dawning of a hope of deliverance from Sheol where a correct translation and exegesis admit no such construction; and, coming to the New Testament, his Pauline Universalism is not borne out by so competent a scholar as Prof. Cone, himself a Universalist.

The chapter called "The Agnostic Reaction" is full of generous appreciation of the doubters and deniers of our time, but is the following a true account of the agnostic party? "They simply reject, and are rejoiced that the evidence does not compel them to accept, the things that are inherited from the hideous barbarism of man half-way out of the animal—that is all." On the contrary, your genuine agnostic is as unable to affirm a good God and a good future as the worst yet conceived. Chapter ix., "The Spiritualistic Reaction," represents spiritualism, the doctrine of intermundane communication, as a reaction from Agnosticism. Shall we not keep closer to the facts if we say that spiritualism in this sense achieved its most notable popular victories *pari passu* with the agnostic and the materialistic advance? That there has been of late years a spiritualistic reaction there can be no doubt, but its spiritualism has been that of science and philosophy jointly discovering the insufficiency of matter as a final term. It has been that of the Neo-Kantians and Neo-Hegelians making their damaging criticism on that Spencerian philosophy which Dr. Savage esteems so highly. But the Spiritualists, with a capital letter, will not be satisfied with Dr. Savage's relation to them and their opinions. He declines being called a Spiritualist because there is so much in popular spiritualism of which he disapproves. He admits a preponderance of fraud in slate-writing and other manifestations. He sets down all materialization as fraudulent. Nevertheless he is persuaded that we have enough evidence to convince us of the truth of Spiritualism "as a provisional hypothesis."

The Society for Psychical Research has a chapter to itself, and Dr. Savage is convinced, with Prof. William James and others,

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that there are phenomena which point unmistakably to the action of extra-human intelligence. We get, however, from him an impression of more ample evidence than that of Professor James's "one white crow," Mrs. Piper, that all "psychics" are not black. In the appendix he takes us into his confidence in a most frank and simple fashion. Clearly his investigations have been very careful and severe, though it might not be difficult to imagine a temper yet more sternly scientific. And they are significant of a circle of phenomena which, if they do not prove another life, prove occult elements in this of marvellous depth, and very great importance.

English Political Philosophy, from Hobbes to Maine. By William Graham. London: Edward Arnold. 1899.

First Principles in Politics. By William Samuel Lilly. G. P. Putnam's Sons. 1899.

The design of Prof. Graham's book is good. No country, except Athens, has produced so much political thinking of a high order as England. The writers selected for examination—Hobbes, Locke, Burke, Bentham, Mill, and Maine—were great men, whose influence on thought and on civilization well deserves to be estimated. The method adopted by Prof. Graham is to treat the chief writings of each of these philosophers analytically, supplying at the same time criticism and comment. He also attempts "to distinguish what is permanently true from what is doubtful or erroneous, to disengage the former, and, as far as may be, develop it further, with the hope that finally, from the exposition and criticism together, something like an Introduction to Political Science might result, resting on authority and reason combined." So far as exposition is concerned, a reasonable degree of success is attained. The arguments of the writers are carefully condensed and summarized, and the most important and typical views are given by quotation. The comment is occasionally helpful, but it is unavoidably tedious. We may save time, but it is at the sacrifice of pleasure; and it is doubtful if any one competent to appreciate the criticism would not do better to consult the originals for himself.

In his attempt to distinguish false from true, and to give some finality to political speculation, Prof. Graham undertakes a task requiring very exceptional powers, and one in which failure involves no reproach. Why we consider his attempt unsuccessful we can show most briefly by illustration. He reviews Burke's writings, and we are bound to say with the greatest care and with excellent judgment. Then he proceeds "to pronounce a final opinion on Burke's theory of things." He finds

> "a system of opinions that rejects the possibility of discovery in moral or political philosophy; that forbids honest inquiry on religious questions that might appear to lead further than its own conclusions; a mental temperament that would make a difference of speculative dogma in religion or politics a ground of a prolonged war with a neighboring nation, and one that is even out of sympathy with the new economical doctrines and the great new developments in manufactures and trade. . . . We find a system of politics that rests property mainly on prescription, whatever injustices and abuses may be connected with it, as in the case of the feudal burdens and dues in France; that rests government as well as property on prescription, and that accordingly approves of an irresponsible and corrupt oligarchy governing England. . . . We find a view of morals that rests right conduct on opinions, manners, habits, as external objective guides, or else on prejudice and mere strong feeling as internal instructors, instead of on conscience, reason, utility. . . . This stamp of mind that dislikes all change, at the Reformation would have condemned it, and would have been on the side of Philip II.; at the rise of Christianity, with the persecuting Emperors."

So much for Burke. Now if we refer to Prof. Graham's criticism of Locke's views on Toleration, we find him defending the persecution of the Christians as a political necessity; and as to Philip's policy of extirpating heresy by slaughtering the Netherlanders, Prof. Graham blandly observes that history will justify him in making the attempt. When he examines Mill's philosophy, he takes the position that, except in the field of invention, little more progress remains to be made by mankind. "Science is nearly completed, art in all its branches has probably already reached its highest culmination." We shall not get much further than Spinoza, Kant, or Hegel; but, perhaps, the social organization "can be somewhat improved." Prof. Graham's complacency exceeds that of Burke, and we cannot but deplore the lot of Newton in living when he did. Had he possessed our modern wisdom, instead of blindly thinking he was picking up a few pebbles on the boundless ocean of truth, he would have discovered that what confronted him was but a small pond, the opposite shore of which was in plain sight.

Mr. Lilly is a dogmatist. He dislikes the Utilitarians, and holds to Natural Right. He maintains that right and wrong in their nature are what they are from everlasting to everlasting, and are unchangeable even by the fiat of Omnipotence. At the same time he insists that reason is the characteristic endowment of man, that it is separated by a whole universe from instinct, and that the capacity for ethical development is possessed by the human race alone. Furthermore, Mr. Lilly declares that the State is not only an organism, but a person. It is also a superior person; "the rights of the organic whole come before the rights of any constituent part." Sadly enough, this superior person occasionally sins; but it seems rather presumptuous for beings of a lower order to venture on such criticism. Lèse-majesté is really flat blasphemy. Mere mortals should not define the duties of superior beings; especially since these beings either do not possess the faculty of speech, or disdain to use it in silencing human impertinence. While we cannot adopt Mr. Lilly's political metaphysics, we must do him the justice of saying that he is a vigorous writer, and that many of his observations on social questions are acute and suggestive.

Bird Studies with a Camera. With Introductory Chapters on the Outfit and Methods of the Bird Photographer. By Frank M. Chapman, Assistant Curator of Vertebrate Zoölogy in the American Museum of Natural History, etc. With over one hundred photographs from nature, by the author. D. Appleton & Co. 1900. 12mo, pp. viii, 218.

The utility of the camera as an aid in nature study is vividly demonstrated in 'Bird Studies'—a most charmingly written book, as well as a very important contribution to ornithology. The author happily combines scientific exactness with the keen insight and sympathetic touch of the born bird-lover, and ranks not only as an ornithologist of high standing in the technicalities of his science, but as one of our best popular writers on birds. He has had exceptionally wide experience in field work, and is easily the leading expert with the camera in its relation to bird life. To make the way easier for others who may wish to enter this fascinating field of both research and pleasure, about forty pages are devoted to instructions to the would-be bird photographer in reference to his outfit and methods of work, based on long experience in the use of the camera, and giving doubtless the best and fullest instructions regarding the technique of the subject ever presented to the public. The remaining 150 pages, with their 100 reproductions of the author's photographs, afford abundant incentive to effort on the part of beginners in this delightful field, and sufficient evidence of the success that has rewarded his own patient endeavors.

Photography, although so fascinating, is not merely a pastime, but, as our author well says, an invaluable substitute for any amount of description. In recording the character of a bird's haunts, its nesting site, nest, eggs, the appearance and development of its young, the camera is so far ahead of the pen in its power of graphic representation that it is a waste of time to use the latter when circumstances permit the utilization of the former. A photograph of a marsh or wood showing the favorite haunts of a species is worth more than pages of description. A picture of a bird's nesting site conveys a better idea of the situation than words can possibly give, while in place of vague phrases descriptive of a nest, we have a faithful delineation of the nest itself, etc. Especially is the camera to be prized as furnishing an indisputable register of conditions that are rapidly passing away, as in the case of the few large bird colonies still existing. We know that the Great Auk found one of its last resorts at Funk Island, where was once a prosperous colony; and how important an addition to this bird's history, Mr. Chapman asks, would be a series of photographs taken of this bird as it formerly existed on this island! The wild pigeon, less than a century ago, was so abundant as at times to darken the sun with its passing millions, but there was then no camera to record these flights and supply evidence of facts that now seem almost beyond belief. And such instances are innumerable.

Mr. Chapman's work consists of a series of chapters each focussed, as it were, on some particular species, or on some locality of special interest to the bird student; as for example, "The Chicadee, a Study in Black and White," with its eight pictures of old and young chicadee life, and accompanying text telling of the trials and patience required to secure the pictures, and giving us a hitherto unwritten chicadee biography. The chapter on the Least Bittern, with its six illustrations, is a revelation even to the ornithologist regarding this little known recluse. That entitled "Two Herons" tells of the housekeeping affairs of a large colony of night herons or quawks on Long Island, and of the haunts of the Great Blue Heron in Cayuga County, New York; in both cases the telephoto lens had to be used in securing the pictures here shown. "Where Swallows Roost" is

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a tale of the Hackensack marshes, where marsh mallows and wild rice are effectively in evidence as well as swallows. "Two Days with the Terns" recounts briefly the sad history of the all but annihilation of these lovely sea birds along our coast, and exhibits to the eye the various stages of growth of the young and the graceful form and pose of the old birds, as studied at Great Gull Island, New York, and on the Weepeekets in Buzzard's Bay. "The Bird Rocks of the Gulf of St. Lawrence" deals with the great colonies of sea birds—gannets, gulls, guillemots, and petrels, or Mother Carey chickens—still in existence, though with greatly reduced population, on Percé Rock, the Bird Rocks, Bonaventure Island, and the Magdalens, with many views of the islands themselves, of the hardy fishermen, the lighthouse and light-keeper's home and family on Great Bird Rock, and of bird life in all its varied kinds and phases. "Life on Pelican Island, with Some Speculations on the Origin of Bird Migration" concludes the book. Pelican Island is a small islet off the east coast of Florida, where all the pelicans of the neighboring region find a nesting-place. Ten pictures, with the usual delightful narrative of personal experience and events in the pelican metropolis, serve to make very real this little-known resort of a bird that has of late been slaughtered with reckless hand to supply the long quills recently so much in vogue for women's hats.

Mr. Chapman has a few words to say on "the charm of photography," as well as on its utility as an aid in bird study, a portion of which we cannot resist transcribing, since it shows how the camera is replacing the gun, even with earnest bird students:

"As a one-time sportsman, who yielded to none in his enjoyment of the chase, I can affirm that there is a fascination about the hunting of wild animals with a camera as far ahead of the pleasure to be derived from their pursuit with shotgun or rifle as the sport found in shooting quail is beyond that of breaking clay 'pigeons.' Continuing the comparison, from a sportsman's standpoint, hunting with a camera is the highest development of man's inherent love of the chase. The killing of a bird with a gun seems little short of murder after one has attempted to capture its image with a lens. The demands on the skill and patience of the bird photographer are endless, and his pleasure is intensified in proportion to the nature of the difficulties to be overcome, and in the event of success it is perpetuated by the infinitely more satisfactory results obtained. He does not rejoice over a bag of mutilated flesh and feathers, but in the possession of a trophy—an eloquent token of his prowess as a hunter, a talisman which holds the power of revivifying the circumstances attending its acquisition."

The Orchestra. By Ebenezer Prout. Edward Schuberth & Co.

Germany cannot claim a monopoly of the great musical theorists and writers of works on composition. Dr. Prout has written at least a dozen treatises on harmony, counterpoint, fugue, and musical form, and his books, while no less thorough than those of the Germans, are usually more practical and up to date. The crowning work of his series is now before us—two volumes on the orchestra—which, with the exception, perhaps, of Gevaert's treatise, may be pronounced the most useful extant on the subject for students, composers, and amateurs who wish to know more about the components of orchestral coloring than their ears unaided tell them. Dr. Prout has devoted eleven years to his task, having made a list of some 1,400 passages in the works of the masters of all schools. From these he selected the most pertinent, and made such free use of them that his two volumes contain more pages of illustrations than of reading-matter; whereat surely no student will growl. It will save him much trouble or expense, especially as many of the author's references are to the less familiar and accessible works of such fine colorists as Schubert and Mozart, Auber and Cherubini.

One might quarrel with the author for practically ignoring Bach and Handel, and beginning with Haydn and Mozart as the originators of modern orchestration; but, though Bach and Handel were great colorists in their way, some of their instruments differed from ours, so that Dr. Prout's procedure is justifiable, and we may agree with him that "the science of orchestration, as practised at the present time, is the most recently developed branch of music, being not much more than a century old." Its history has been well told by Henri Lavoix. Our author also points out that just as no sensible man would ever think of trying to paint a picture before he had thoroughly learned drawing and perspective, so it is quite useless for any one to attempt to write for orchestra before he has obtained a complete mastery of the other branches of composition. So far as the art of tone-coloring can be taught on paper, it is done in Dr. Prout's book; but, as he admits, "the feeling for orchestral coloring must be, like the invention of melody, a natural gift, and not the result of mere calculation. . . . Further, just as every great painter has his own peculiar style of coloring, each great composer has his own method of scoring; and it would be no more possible for an experienced musician to mistake a score of Mozart for one of Wagner than it would for an art-connoisseur to mistake a painting by Titian for one by J. W. Turner." As a poet may torture his brain days or weeks for the right word to express his thought, so a composer may hunt a long time till he finds in his mind the proper instrumental coloring for the musical idea and mood he has in view. A great composer can call to his mind's ear peculiar tone colors as a poet or novelist can particular scenes to his mind's eye.

BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

Abney, Sir W. de W. Instruction in Photography. New ed. London: Sampson Low, Marston & Co.; Philadelphia: J. B. Lippincott Co.
Brainerd, Eveline W. Quaint Nuggets. New York: Fords, Howard & Hulbert.
Colquhoun, A. R. Overland to China. Harpers. $3.
Davis, W. S., A Friend of Cæsar: A Tale of the Fall of the Roman Republic, 50-47 B. C. Macmillan. $1.50.
Hamilton, S. M. The Writings of James Monroe. Vol. III., 1796-1802. Putnams.
Liberty Poems Inspired by the Crisis of 1898-1900. Boston: The James H. West Co. 75c.
Mullins, Isla M. An Upward Look for Mothers: Poems. Philadelphia: The Griffith & Rowland Press.
Nelson, S. A. The A. B. C. of Wall Street. New York: S. A. Nelson. $1.
Pool, Maria L. The Meloon Farm: A Novel. Harpers. $1.50.
Stockton, Frank R. Novels and Stories. Vols. XIV. and XV. Scribners.
Tarr, Prof. R. S., and McMurry, Prof. F. M. North America. Second Book. Macmillan. 75c.
The Christ of Cynewulf: A Poem in Three Parts. Translated into English Prose by C. H. Whitman. Boston: Ginn & Co. 45c.
The Knight of the Grip. Reprinted from the "Iron Age." New York: David Williams Co. 60c.
Thiéry, J. Châteaux de Cartes. Paris: Armand Colin & Cie. 3 fr. 50c.
Whitby, Beatrice. Bequeathed: A Novel. Harpers. $1.50.

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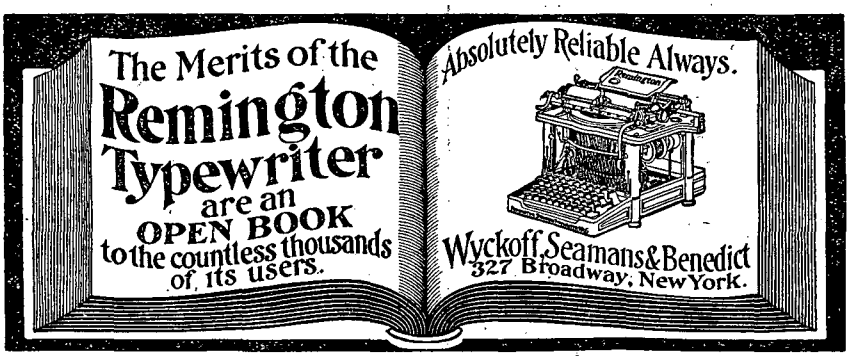

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